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A SPECIAL REPORT

ON THE

Systems and State of Popular Education,

ON THE CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

IN THE BRITISH ISLES,

AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA,

WITH PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS

FOR

The Improvement of Public Instruction

IN THE PROVINCE OF ONTARIO.

BY THE REV. DR. *Egerton* RYERSON,
CHIEF SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION FOR ONTARIO.

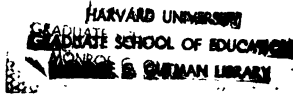


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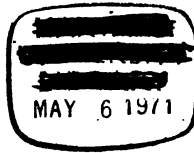
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DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION FOR ONTARIO.

No. 1275. Y 2.

EDUCATION OFFICE,
TORONTO, 2nd March, 1868.

SIR,--

I have the honour to transmit herewith, to be laid before His Excellency, the Members of the Legislature, and the Country, a Special Report on the Systems and State of Popular Education in several countries of Europe, and the United States of America, with practical suggestions for the improvement of Public Instruction in this Province.

I propose to present a separate report on Institutions for the Deaf and Dumb and the Blind.

I have the honour to be,

Sir,

Your most obedient servant,

E. RYERSON.

THE HONOURABLE

M. C. CAMERON, M. P. P.,

Secretary of the Province,

TORONTO.

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our own system and methods of diffusing education and useful knowledge among all classes of the population. With this view, I have, several times, visited all the Counties of Upper Canada, and been permitted in 1850-1, and again in 1855-6, to make educational tours in the United States and Europe, as also again in 1866-7. During this last tour, I was directed by the Government to make special enquiries in regard to Institutions for the education of the Deaf and Dumb and Blind, with a view to some effective legislation and measures for the education of those afflicted classes of our fellow creatures.

A Supplementary Report on this subject will be shortly laid before the Legislature.

It is my pleasing duty to add that in each of these tours of inspection and enquiry, I was favoured by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs—on former occasions by the Earl of Clarendon, and last year by Lord Stanley—with letters of introduction to the British Ambassador at the Court of each of the countries I intended to visit, and through whom I obtained every document and facility of enquiry requisite for my purpose.

Under these circumstances, and on the creation of a new Legislature, and the inauguration of a new system of Government, it seems appropriate to review the principles and progress of our system of education in the light of the educational systems of other countries, and determine to be second to no country in our plans and efforts to secure to the whole of the rising and future generations of this Province of the Canadian Dominion the advantages and blessings of a sound, Christian education.

It would be easy to occupy a quarto volume of a thousand pages with historical and practical expositions of systems of instruction in foreign countries; but I think I shall best perform my present task by condensing in the narrowest possible space a summary view of the educational systems of the principal countries to which we are accustomed to look for example and instruction in this noblest work of a nation, making such references and applications to our Province as the topics discussed and our circumstances may suggest.

COMMISSIONS OF INQUIRY BY OTHER COUNTRIES.

In this course of foreign educational enquiry, we have but followed the example of older educating countries. Three distinguished American educationists, besides ordinary travellers, have visited Europe for the express purpose of studying its educational systems. In 1837, Doctor Bache, then Director of Girard College, Philadelphia, was commissioned by the Trustees of the College to make a tour of inspection in Europe, where he pursued his mission with great industry and ability for two years, and presented, in 1839, an elaborate report of upwards of 600 octavo pages on the educational systems and institutions of most of the German States, Great Britain, France, Holland, and Switzerland.

In 1838 Professor Stowe inspected and made a brief but excellent report on education, and especially on the system of Normal Schools in Prussia; and in 1843, the late Horace Mann, then Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education, made a school tour in Europe, and reported especially upon the character and methods of school discipline and teaching in Holland, Prussia,

England and Scotland. A few years since, Doctor Henry Barnard,—now at the head of the new National Department of Education at Washington, made an educational tour in Europe; and he has written largely and lucidly on Education and the Normal Schools and other educational institutions of Germany, France, England, &c. I am indebted to Dr. Barnard for several facts and references in the following pages.

As early as 1831, the French Government deputed the justly celebrated M. Victor Cousin to make a tour of inspection in Germany, and to report not only on primary education, but on the higher Schools and Universities. M. Cousin occupied half of his report of two volumes with Prussia, but describes the educational institutions of Weimar, Saxony, Frankfort-on-the-Main, and Holland. M. Cousin's report on the Prussian system of education has been translated into English, and repeatedly printed in both England and the United States; and as the earliest fruit of that report, M. Guizot, then French Minister of Public Instruction, devised and put into operation a system of public instruction for France, which, with some important modifications, remains to the present day—the most comprehensive and complete in Europe, except that of Prussia. Again, in 1854, M. Eugène Rendu was charged by the French Ministry of Instruction to visit Germany and study the state of education there; and lastly, in 1865, the French Ministry of Public Instruction directed M. J. M. Baudouin to inspect and study and report upon the organization and methods of public instruction in Belgium, Germany and Switzerland. His report extends to upwards of 500 quarto pages.

The British Government has appointed various commissions to investigate and report on the systems of instruction on the Continent. Within the last ten years an Education Commission, appointed by the Queen and presided over, until his death, by the late Duke of Newcastle, has enquired into the state of popular education in England with a view to consider and report upon measures for the extension of sound and cheap elementary education to all classes of the people. That Commission has appointed Assistant Commissioners to visit France, Holland, Switzerland, Germany, the United States and Canada. Their researches were to embrace the following heads of enquiry: “1. The voluntary or compulsory character of the education. 2. The nature of the education. 3. The means by which it is supplied. 4. The regulations by which it is governed. 5. Its results.”

To make these important enquiries, Matthew Arnold, Esq., M.A.,—son of the late celebrated Reverend Doctor Arnold—was appointed to visit France, Holland and French Switzerland; the Reverend Mark Pattison, B.D., was appointed to make enquiry into Elementary Education in Germany; and the Reverend James Fraser, M.A., was appointed to visit the United States and Canada for the same purpose.

I have, of course, availed myself of the reports of these able men, as well as of the official reports and laws of the several countries I have visited, in order to assist my own enquiries and enlarge my knowledge on the many topics of investigation. Their opinions will be frequently quoted in the following pages.

I.—PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN FRANCE.

I will commence with a brief view of the *System* of Public (especially primary) Instruction in France; in order to understand which, it will be necessary to note the governmental organization on which that system of instruction is engrafted.

1.—MUNICIPAL DIVISIONS OF FRANCE.

France, formerly divided into thirty-four provinces, has, since 1789, been divided into *Departments*; each *Department* is divided into *Arrondissements*; each *Arrondissement* is subdivided into *Cantons and Communes*. There are in France 86 *Departments*, 363 *Arrondissements*, 2,850 *Cantons*, and 36,826 *Communes*. The population of France, according to the last census, is 37,471,000—about one-third larger than that of Great Britain and Ireland.

The largest division for administrative purposes in France, is the *Department*, at the head of which is a *Prefect*, who is appointed by the Central Executive, and assisted by two Councils; the first of which is a judicial body—a “*Prefect’s Council (Conseil de Préfecture)*”—whose duty it is to settle legal disputes arising out of the administration of the *Department*,—the second is a Council-General, an elective deliberative body, which assigns to each of the several *Arrondissements* in the *Department* its share of *Departmental State-taxation*, and votes the funds expended by the executive of the *Department*.

The *Arrondissement* is the next largest administrative division in France. At the head of each *Arrondissement* is another officer of the Central Government—the *Sub-Prefect*, who is assisted by another deliberative body, called the *Conseil d’Arrondissement*, which performs for the *Arrondissement* and *Communes* included in it the same functions which the Council General performs for the *Department* and *Arrondissements*. The *Canton* is a subdivision of the *Arrondissement*, has its chief town, or *chef lieu*, and at the head of which is a Justice of the Peace—*Juge de Paix*.

The smallest municipal division is the *Commune*, (somewhat similar to a borough in England, or a township with us,) at the head of which is a third executive officer, called a Mayor, who is assisted by a third deliberative body, called the Municipal Council.

The heads of this Municipal hierarchy—the *Prefects*, *Sub-Prefects*, *Justices of the Peace*, and *Mayors*—are all appointed by Imperial authority; the deliberative bodies are elected by the tax-payers whom they represent. But the *Prefect* has power to dissolve any Municipal Council in his *Department*, and to replace it by a Municipal Commission of his own nomination. This has been done in Paris and all the large towns and many rural parts of France. Upwards of 2,000 elective Municipal Councils have thus been dissolved since 1851, and replaced by permanent executive Municipal Commissions.*

*This appears a very sweeping, and to us an extreme, exercise of arbitrary power; but after all the enquiry and observation I have been able to make, I do not think there is anything political or dynastic in it, as the primary school system in France does not appear to be more political now than when M. Guizot was Minister of Public Instruction, or than the school system of Upper Canada or of any other country. The law of France, like that of Prussia, declares that provision shall be made to bring education within reach of every child in the land, and that schoolhouses

Though there is thus a nominal elective system of municipal government in France, there is a real net-work of executive power and control intersecting and pervading every Commune of the Empire—constituting a perfectly absolute government for the time being under the form of universal suffrage.

2.—SYSTEM OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION—ITS THREEFOLD DIVISION.

The Organization of the System of Public Instruction in France is in harmony with that of the civil government. At the head of it stands *The Supreme Council of Public Instruction*, presided over by the Minister of Public Instruction, and composed of five Bishops or Archbishops, three Senators, three Councillors of State, three members of the Court of Cassation (or Appeal), three ministers belonging to the Lutheran, Reformed and Jewish Churches, five members of the Institute, eight Inspectors-General, and two heads of private establishments of instruction. This Council thus fairly represents the different creeds and institutions of France. The clergy, both Roman Catholic and Protestant, though included in every school corporation or council, are always in a small minority. In France the Church is completely subject to the State. All the members of this Supreme Council are, since 1852, named by the Emperor for one year. The Council assembles at least twice a year, and gives its opinions on projected bills and decrees concerning public instruction, on regulations respecting programmes of study, and has control over all the Councils of Academies (Universities), of which there are sixteen—each Academy having one or more of the Faculties of Law, Medicine, Literature and the Sciences—and Lyceums (Grammar Schools), Colleges, and schools of primary instruction under its jurisdiction.

Public instruction in France is distinguished into *Instruction Supérieure*—including the Academies, with five Faculties—*Sciences, Letters, Theology, Law and Medicine*; *Instruction Secondaire*—comprising the Lyceums, Royal and Communal Colleges—at which students can take the Degrees of Bachelor of Letters and Bachelor of Sciences; and *Instruction Primaire*—comprising elementary or common schools. There is a Normal School Superior, for training Professors for the Faculties in the Academies; there are Normal Schools Secondary, for the training of Professors for the Lyceums and Collèges. None but graduates, after competitive examination, are eligible for admission into these Normal Schools. There are also Primary Normal Schools, for the training of teachers for the elementary schools.

3.—GOVERNMENT INSPECTION OF SCHOOLS.

Over all these Academies, Colleges, and Schools, there is a rigid system of inspection. There are eight Inspectors-General for the Academies or Faculties; six Inspectors-General of the Lyceums and Colleges; and two Inspectors-General to oversee the numerous local inspectors of the elementary schools. Each

and teachers shall be provided for that purpose; and that no individual or local body, elective or otherwise, shall contravene this great principle of the national law and will. If, therefore, any elective school commission, or trustee, neglects or opposes this national interest and enactment, such elective school corporation or individual is removed, and the Government appoints a commission or officer that will give effect to the provisions of the law. A similar provision existed in the school law of Lower Canada for many years. I believe that it exists still, though there is less occasion for it now than formerly.

of the sixteen *Academies* has a district of country embracing several *Departments*, and is presided over by a *Rector*, who has charge of the Normal Schools, and the course of study and methods of teaching in the primary schools, and who is assisted by an officer in each department of his district called an Academy Inspector, who has chiefly to do with secondary instruction, but has also the supervision of primary instruction in his department; and to him the Inspector of Primary Schools makes his reports, and on his representations the Prefect is for the most part guided in dealing with the primary teachers.

4.—DEPARTMENTAL CONTROL OF EDUCATION.

The Prefect, as I have observed, is the head of the *Department*, and is assisted by a Departmental Council, composed of thirteen members, the majority of whom were formerly elected by the ratepayers, but all of whom are now nominated by the Minister of Public Instruction, except the Procureur-General, the Bishop and his ecclesiastical nominee, who are *ex officio* members. The powers of this Council are very large. It nominates the Cantonal delegates (who were formerly elective), and the commissioners charged with the examination of certificates; it has the regulation of public primary schools; fixes the rate of school fees, prepares the list of candidates admissible to the office of communal teacher, fixes the salaries of teachers, judges them in matters of discipline, and can interdict them for ever from the exercise of their profession, subject to an appeal to the Imperial Council of Public Instruction. It can even refuse to any teacher, without the right of appeal, the permission to open a private elementary school, which M. Guizot's law of 1833 accorded to all teachers provided with certificates of morality and capacity. But this Council cannot nominate, suspend or dismiss a teacher; that power is confided to the *Prefect* alone, who names, changes, reprimands, suspends and dismisses all public primary school teachers of every grade!

5.—COMMUNAL CONTROL OF EDUCATION—RELIGIOUS PERSUASIONS—PROTECTION OF THE MINORITY.

The Mayor and Municipal Council of each *commune* have the immediate care and oversight of each communal school. The Mayor and the Curé, or minister of religion, have the exclusive supervision of the moral and religious teaching of the school. In France three forms of religious worship are recognized by law—the Roman Catholic, the Protestant (Reformed and Lutheran), and the Jewish; and the ministers of these communions are alike salaried by the State. About *thirteen-fifteenths* of the population are Roman Catholic. The Protestants number five millions—divided between Calvinists and Lutherans—the former having 510 salaried ministers, and the latter 255. The Jews number about 70,000.* The rights of the minority are carefully protected. Under the system established by Mr. Guizot in 1833, the rectors were charged to see that, in the public schools no child of a different religious profession from that of the majority was constrained to take part in the religious teaching and observances of his

* Scarcely any two authorities agree as to the number of Protestants and Jews in France. The English Statesman's Year Book quoting the census of 1864 gives the Protestant population at 1,561,250, and the Jewish population at 186,000.

fellow-scholars. They were to permit and request parents of such children to cause them to receive suitable religious instruction from a minister of their own communion, or from a layman regularly appointed for that purpose. They were enjoined to see that in every week, at fixed hours to be agreed upon between the minister of religion, the parents, and the local school authorities, such children were conducted to the Protestant Church, or any other place prescribed, for religious instruction in the faith of their parents. The Inspectors were also enjoined to see to the observance of these regulations. Similar provision was made for religious freedom and religious instruction in the Normal Schools. It was further provided that where the minority had cause to desire a Separate School, and reasonable numbers to fill it, the executive Rectors and Inspectors were to take heed that Municipal Councils did not unjustly refuse the minority's request.

6.—SEPARATE SCHOOLS ALLOWED—RELIGIOUS LIBERTY MAINTAINED.

Difficulties having arisen in connection with religious instruction in the common schools, separate or denominational schools multiplied, and became rather the rule than the exception. By laws and regulations adopted in 1850, each form of religion recognized by the State, is allowed to have a separate school; but the departmental council has power to unite in one common school children of different religious communions. Yet if the children are thus united in one school, their religious liberty is sedulously guarded. It is provided that the ministers of each communion shall have free and equal access to the school, at separate times, to watch over the religious instruction of the children of their own communion. Where the school is appropriated to one denomination, no child of another denomination is admitted without a written request from his parents or guardians; of which request the teacher must keep a record, to be produced when required.

Thus the liberty and rights of the minority are protected in France; and I believe that protection is impartial and effectual. My own observation accords with that of the English Commissioner, Arnold, who says:—"I confidently affirm, in contradiction of much ignorant assertion, that the liberty thus proclaimed by law is maintained in practice. The venerable chiefs of the principal Protestant communities of the French Provinces,—the President of the Consistory of Nismes, the President of the Consistory of Strasbourg—individually assured me that as regarded the treatment of their schools by the authorities, they had nothing whatever to complain of; that Protestant schools came into collision with the State in no otherwise than as Catholic Schools came; that such collision, when it happened, was, in nine cases out of ten, on matters wholly unconnected with religion. In Languedoc, indeed, the embers of religious animosity still smoulder; but it is among the lower orders of the population. It is not that the state persecutes the Protestants; it is that Protestant and Catholic mobs have still sometimes the impulse to persecute each other, and that the State has hard work to keep the peace between them."

7.—METHODS OF PROVIDING FOR THE SUPPORT OF SCHOOLS.

The means of establishing and supporting the schools are provided by the joint action of the State, the Departments, the Communes, fees of pupils, and individual contributions. Every Commune must provide a school-house and residence for the teacher. Every teacher must have a lodging or its equivalent in money, with a minimum salary of not less than 600 francs, (\$120.) If the Commune refuses or neglects to provide by tax on the property at the rate of three per cent., the Government imposes and collects it. If the Commune, on account of poverty or disaster to the crops, cannot raise the sum required, the department to which such Commune belongs, must provide it. And if the revenues of the Department, by a tax of two per cent., are not sufficient to meet the deficiencies of all the Communes, the balance is supplied by the State.

In every Department the Prefect and Council-General annually prepare an estimate of the expense of primary instruction in the Department, and apportion it to the Arrondissements and Communes. In each Commune, the Mayor and Municipal Council make a special estimate of the same kind and fix the monthly tuition fees to be paid by parents. Each Commune is at liberty to establish a *free school*, and provide any additional means it may require for school purposes; and where tuition-fees are imposed, the Mayor has authority to give any pupils he thinks proper certificates of exemption from the payment of fees on account of the indigence of their parents.

8.—NORMAL SCHOOLS FOR DEPARTMENTS.

Every Department must support a Normal School for the training of teachers for primary schools; or, in certain circumstances, two or more Departments may unite for that purpose. The sum to be expended in support of a Normal School for the salaries of teachers, apparatus, or scholarships in aid of poor students, is not fixed by the Department, but is regulated by the Supreme Council of Public Instruction. The salary of the principal, or director, is borne jointly by the Government and the Department; the salaries of the other teachers is borne by the Department. The expense of the Normal students for board (tuition free) is borne by themselves, unless they enjoy a scholarship founded by the State, the Department, the University, Commune or individual benevolence.

9.—PROVISION FOR SUPERANNUATED TEACHERS.

In each Department an increasing fund is established for the relief of aged teachers, and of the widows and children of teachers who have died in their work. Each teacher must subscribe one-twentieth of the salary he receives from the Commune; and the sum-total of his subscription, together with the interest on it, is returned to him when he retires, or to his widow and children when he dies.

Without entering into further detail, I will now present a brief *statistical view* of the operations of this magnificent and comprehensive system of public instruction.

10.—UNIVERSITIES, COLLEGES, SUPERIOR NORMAL SCHOOLS AND STUDENTS.

Under the head of *Instruction Supérieure*, there are the sixteen Academies, or Universities, with their one or more Faculties each. There are six Faculties of Catholic Theology; two Faculties of Protestant Theology; nine Faculties of Law; three Faculties of Medicine; six Faculties of Sciences and Letters. These are distributed among the principal towns of France. In the University of Paris alone, the number of students amounts to 2,000 for Law, 3,000 for Medicine, 1,500 for Sciences and Letters. In the College de France, there are 34 Professors, and as many in the Sorbonne, all of whose lectures are public and free. There are upwards of 20,000 students in the various Academies, or University Colleges.

In the system of *Secondary Instruction*, there are 63 Lyceums and 244 Communal Colleges (Superior Grammar Schools), aided and inspected by the State. All the towns possessing Faculties have also Normal Schools (*Ecoles Normales Supérieures*), for providing the Lyceums and Communal Colleges with masters and teachers, besides the Superior Normal School at Paris, for the training of candidates for professorships in the Universities, and which is under the control of the Minister of Public Instruction, administered by three directors, and in which there are 18 Professors and 80 students.

11.—PRIMARY SCHOOLS, TEACHERS AND PUPILS.

It is, however, with the system of *Primary Instruction* that we are chiefly concerned. Mr. Arnold, in the report of his French Mission of Inspection in 1859, remarks that no report on the state of primary instruction had been published for *eight years*; but he obtained statistics (which had been prepared with great labour from unpublished documents) of the primary schools for 1857. In 1865, a very elaborate statistical report of primary instruction, down to the end of 1863, was published. I was kindly favoured with a copy of it, among various other documents, at the department of the Minister of Public Instruction at Paris. I will here translate a summary of the statistics of this remarkable document—premising that the schools taught by religious orders, are called *Congréganist Schools—Ecoles Congréganistes*. For convenience, French money will be reduced into our currency. Twenty-five francs are one pound sterling; and five francs may be considered as one dollar. This report of the Minister of Public Instruction (*Rapport à Sa Majesté L'Empereur, Sur L'Etat de L'Enseignement Primaire pendant L'Année 1863*) opens with the following statement of the progress of school attendance since 1832:

“In 1832, our primary schools contained 1,935,624 children for 32,560,934 inhabitants.”

“In 1847, there were 3,530,134 pupils for 35,400,486 inhabitants.”

“In 1863, there were returned 4,336,368 pupils for a population of 37,382,225 inhabitants. In other words, in 1832, France sent to the primary schools 59 pupils out of 1,000 inhabitants; in 1847, 99.8; in 1863, 116 pupils for every thousand inhabitants.”

In the summary of this report we have the following remarks and statistics:

“All the Communes are subject to the legal obligation of supporting at

least one public school each. They can only be relieved from this obligation by the Departmental Council uniting one or more neighbouring Communes for the support of a public school, or by providing in a private school for the gratuitous instruction of children whose parents are unable to pay the fees."

The following was the state of the Communes in respect to those obligations January 1st, 1864:

"34,666 Communes supported by themselves one or more public schools, 1,880 Communes were legally united to other Communes for school purposes, 146 Communes provided in private schools for the gratuitous instruction of indigent children, 818 Communes did not fulfil the obligations imposed upon them by law. Total Communes, 37,510."

"The population of 818 Communes deprived of schools, was 262,499 inhabitants—or on an average 321 inhabitants in each Commune. The greater part of these localities send their children to schools in the neighbourhood."

12.—BOYS' SCHOOLS, AND MIXED SCHOOLS FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.

"In the 36,692 Communes provided with schools, there are 38,386 public schools; of which 20,703 are for boys, and 17,683 are mixed schools of boys and girls. Thus the children of the two sexes are united in 17,683 Communal schools; of which 15,030 are taught by male teachers, and 2,653 are taught by female teachers; 1,581 are taught by male, and 1,072 by female religious orders. Of the whole 38,386 boys or mixed schools, 33,767 are taught by male lay teachers, and 1,581 by female lay teachers; 1,966 are taught by the Christian Brothers, and 1,072 by Sisters."

13.—GIRLS' SCHOOLS.

"Of the 37,510 Communes of the Empire, 19,312 are provided with school for girls. So that there are 18,198 Communes yet unprovided with schools specially for girls."

14.—FREE SCHOOLS.

"Every Commune has the discretionary power, from its own resources, to support one or more free schools—*Ecoles Entièrement Gratuites*—(law of 1850). There are 2,752 of these free schools—866 taught by the religious orders, and 1,886 taught by lay teachers."

15.—SCHOOL-HOUSES AND RESIDENCES OF TEACHERS.

"Every Commune is required to provide a suitable place furnished for the school and residence of the teacher (law of 1850). And by a decree of September, 1863, the teacher's furniture is added. Of the school premises, in the 38,386 public schools, 27,642 belong to the Communes; 10,165 are rented by the Communes; 509 are lent by private individuals; 70 belong to religious associations. Of the 27,642 school-houses belonging to the Communes, 19,398 are well arranged; 2,316 are convenient for teaching the school only; 1,501 are only suitable for lodging the teacher; 4,428 are in no respect suitable. Gardens are attached to 26,220 school-houses; 25,882 are for the personal use

of the teacher, and 338 serve more particularly for the horticultural teaching of the pupils. Of the 10,743 school-houses which do not belong to the Communes, 3,354 are convenient; 1,106 are convenient only for the lodgment of the teachers; 1,117 are convenient only for the classes of the school; 5,166 are in no respect suitable."

16.—TEACHERS HOLDING CERTIFICATES OF QUALIFICATION—(TITRES DE CAPACITÉ).

"Public teachers, whether male or female, must be provided with a certificate of qualifications (*brevet de capacité*) or a title equivalent, except the female members of religious orders, whose certificates of obedience (*lettre d'obédience*) are accepted in place of the certificate, or brevet. They rank as follows:— Provided with a simple or elementary certificate, 30,433 male lay teachers, 1,905 assistant lay teachers; 1,438 female teachers, and 19 assistant female teachers; 1,881 Christian Brothers, 400 assistants; 263 Sisters, and 10 assistants. Provided with a superior or complete certificate: 2,441 male lay teachers; 10 female lay teachers; 39 Christian Brothers, and 13 assistants. Provided with diploma of Bachelor, 128 male teachers. Provided with a title equivalent to a brevet, 205 male teachers. Having no brevet, 550 male lay teachers, and 783 assistants; 133 female lay teachers, and 14 assistants; 46 Christian Brothers and 3,942 assistants; 809 Sisters, and 556 assistants."

Thus, nearly eight per cent. of the lay teachers have the complete brevet or diploma of bachelor; less than two per cent. of the congreganist teachers have the complete brevet. Among the assistant lay teachers, nearly 71 per cent. are breveted; among the assistant congreganists, a little more than nine per cent. have the brevet. There are more than eight times as many of the breveted assistant teachers among the laymen as among the congreganists.

17.—MINIMUM SALARY OF TEACHERS.

"Besides the lodgment and furnished school-house, every Commune is obliged to furnish the public teacher a certain allowance. (Law of 1850.) The decree of the 19th April, 1862, fixes in the following manner the minimum salary of teachers:

1. From 1 to 5 years' service.....	600 francs. (\$120.)
2. After 5 years.....	700 " (\$140.)
3. After 10 years.....	800 " (\$160.)
4. After 15 years.....	900 " (\$180.)

"The female teachers who teach the public schools enjoy an allowance, the minimum of which is determined by a decree of the 31st December, 1853, as follows:

1st class.....	500 francs. (\$100.)
2nd class.....	400 " (\$80.)

"Besides the purely scholastic resources teachers enjoy advantages arising out of various accessory functions which they fulfil. The sums which they receive from these accessory functions (such as secretary of the Mayor, &c.,) amount to 4,219,587 francs. (\$843,918.) The average salaries of male teachers, apart from these additional contingencies, in the rural Communes, was 824 francs, (\$165); of female teachers, 778 francs, \$156."

18.—CLASSIFICATION OF SCHOOLS RESULTING FROM INSPECTION.

"Under the relation of the general appearance, the discipline, the direction, the teaching organization, the schools are classed in the five categories following:

	Lay Schools.	Congreganists.
Good	12,513	1,066
Pretty good.....	11,165	957
Passable.....	7,844	670
Mediocre.....	3,048	277
Bad	778	68
Total	35,348	3,038

"Hence it results that the schools judged good by the Inspectors, are in the proportion of 35 per cent. This proportion is the same for each of the two categories of schools—lay and congreganist."

19.—NORMAL SCHOOLS

By the law of 1850, every Department is required to provide for recruiting the supply of masters for the primary public schools, by providing for the training of teachers either in Normal Schools, or in Faculties or other establishments in which a Normal School course of instruction is given. There are 107 establishments especially charged with the training of teachers for the public schools—76 Normal Schools, 7 Normal courses of instruction in Faculties; 24 other establishments (*ecoles stagiaires*) in which there is a Normal School department—an arrangement found unsatisfactory, and being abandoned. The average number of vacancies per year is 1,451; the average number of masters provided by the Normal Schools is 1,060. It results that the Administration can supply from the Normal Schools but three-fourths of the vacancies, and is obliged, each year, to appeal for more than 400 candidates trained in other than Normal School establishments. The engagements contracted by teachers trained in the Normal Schools to devote ten years to public teaching, are generally fulfilled; for the proportion of those who renounce their functions before accomplishing that engagement, is only eight per cent.

The expenses of these Normal Schools and Normal courses of instruction in other establishments, amounted, in 1863, to 2,429,936 francs (\$485,987), of which the State paid 278,395 francs (\$55,679); the Departments 1,584,040 francs (\$316,808); towns 40,875 francs (\$8,175); the schools from their own resources, 108,406 francs (\$21,681); individual pupils and their friends, 417,220 francs (\$83,444).

For the training of female teachers, there are 64 establishments—11 Normal Schools, and 53 Normal courses of instruction in other establishments. The number of vacancies for female teachers in 1863 was 383; the number of trained teachers sent out from the schools was 403.

The expenses of these female Normal Schools and faculties of Normal instruction were, in 1863, by the State, 94,210 francs (18,842); by the Departments, 289,173 francs (\$57,835); by the towns, 3,650 francs (\$730); by the schools

from their own resources, 36,885 francs (\$7,377); by the pupils and their friends, 47,200 francs (\$9,440); total, 471,118 francs (\$94,223).

Upon the whole, there exists in France 172 Normal School establishments, in which 1,500 male and female teachers are trained and sent out annually to the primary schools, at an annual expense to the nation of 2,901,154 francs, or \$580,231—indicating wonderful economy for the work done.

20.—EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS—CERTIFICATES GRANTED IN 1863.

There is in each Department a Commission appointed by the Departmental Council, to examine male and female candidates for certificates of qualification (*brevets de capacité*) for primary instruction. This Commission sits twice a year. Females are added to the Commission for the examination of female candidates.

In 1863, these Commissions included 691 members, and devoted to the examinations of male candidates, 508 days, or five days and three-tenths for each Department; and to the examination of female candidates 458 days, or five days and one-tenth for each Department. The male candidates were of two classes—laymen and congreganists, or members of religious orders. There were 5,119 lay candidates, of whom 2,972 were rejected; 1,583 obtained a simple or third-class certificate of qualification; 365 a second-class certificate (*brevet facultatif*); 199 a complete or first-class certificate (*brevet complet*). Of the congreganists, there were 662 candidates, of whom 395 were rejected; 241 obtained a simple (or third-class) certificate; 5 a second-class, and 21 a first-class or complete certificate of qualification. It results that of the lay candidates, 58.3 per cent. were rejected, and of the congreganist candidates, 59.6 per cent. were rejected.

Female teachers require certificates of qualification as well as male teachers; but the female members of religious orders are exempted from examination—their letter of obedience being accepted, though they are classified. Of the 3,802 lay female candidates who presented themselves for examination, 1,701 were rejected, 310 obtained a certificate or brevet of the first-class, and 1,881 a certificate of the second order. Of 186 congreganist female candidates, 75 were rejected, 3 obtained first-class certificates, and 108 certificates of the second order.

21.—INFANT SCHOOLS AND THEIR TEACHERS.

There is yet another class of schools, that have not yet been mentioned—infant schools—*salles d'asile*. To be placed at the head of an infant school, the mistress must be provided with a certificate of aptitude. In the chief town of each Department, there is a Commission to examine candidates and give certificates of aptitude. These Commissions in various Departments consisted, in 1863, of 371 members, who devoted 57 days to the examinations. Of the 149 lay candidates, 100 obtained certificates of aptitude; of the 10 nuns or congreganists, who presented themselves, 6 obtained certificates. There were, in 1863, 3,308 infant schools, in which there were 383,856 children of both sexes, under seven years of age.

From the "*Résumé Général*" of the French Minister of Public Instruction (M. Duruy), I extract the following remarks and statistics:—

22.—GENERAL SUMMARY OF EDUCATION IN FRANCE.

"The establishments of primary instruction are divided into four classes, or categories, namely:

"*Normal Schools*.—Establishments designed to train teachers—male and female—(*écoles normales, cours normaux, écoles stagiaires*); 2. Primary schools, properly called, in which children are received from seven to thirteen years of age, (boys' schools, girls' schools and common schools for both sexes); 3. Infant schools, galleries and small schools designed for children under seven years of age; 4. Finally, supplementary schools (evening) opened for adults and apprentices.

"Primary instruction is also given in special classes attached to colleges, lyceums, and secondary schools, and in establishments appertaining to different administrations, as prison schools, regimental schools, schools of arts and trades, agricultural and veterinary schools. But we have only to do here with the four orders of establishments which compose exclusively the service of primary instruction and are under the immediate jurisdiction of the Ministry of Public Instruction.

"We have, then, for providing the supply of male teachers, 76 Normal Schools, 7 Normal Faculties or Colleges, and 24 other establishments (*écoles stagiaires*) giving Normal instruction. The official staff of these institutions comprehends 83 directors, 87 chaplains, 308 assistant masters, 135 day professors (non-resident), 3,359 students or pupil-teachers, of whom 1,060 are sent out annually and placed at the head of public schools.

"For supplying female teachers, there exist 11 Normal Schools and 53 Normal courses of instruction in other schools. The officers of these establishments include 64 directresses, 41 chaplains, 185 assistant mistresses, 47 day professors, and 1,201 pupil-mistresses, of whom 403 are sent out annually and placed as mistresses of Communal schools.

"Finally, in the course of practical instruction established at Paris for teachers of infant schools, 71 pupils were taught in 1863, 37 of whom were sent out with certificates of aptitude.

"*Schools and Pupils*.—Of the 37,510 Communes of the Empire, 818 only were without schools. The greater part of these localities send their children to neighbouring schools; 19,372 Communes provided with a special school for girls.

"The 36,692 Communes provided with public or private schools, have 41,494 schools specially for boys or mixed, which receive 2,607,875 pupils; have 27,267 special schools for girls, where 1,728,493 pupils are taught. In all, there are 68,761 schools, and 4,336,368 pupils.

"51,555 schools are conducted by male or female lay teachers, and 17,206 by members of religious orders; 2,725,694 pupils attend the former,—an average of 53 per school; and 1,610,674 pupils attend the latter—an average of 94 per school.

"Of the 4,336,368 children that attend the schools 2,802,943 pay a school fee, and 1,533,425 are admitted gratuitously.

"1,963 Communes are provided with infant schools. The number of these is 3,308—attended by 383,856 pupils; of whom 283,215, that is to say, more than two-thirds, are admitted gratuitously. Besides, there exist 2,022 nursery or small schools established in 1,735 Communes, and which are attended by 50,026 children.

"The general total of primary and infant schools is 72,069, which are attended by 4,720,224 children of both sexes.

"Furthermore, 6,048 primary boarding schools are attached to the public or private establishments. There are 6,825 adult classes or schools,—classes for the sundry—schools of apprentices, of manufactures, of workshops, orphan asylums, attended by 193,207 pupils.

"Thus the establishments for primary instruction number 80,915 (including the 2,022 nursery or small schools), and are attended by 4,963,457 pupils."

School Teachers.—"The teaching body of these establishments of primary instruction, not including the Normal Schools, is composed of 40,296 lay male teachers and assistant teachers; 24,212 lay mistresses and assistant mistresses; of schools of the religious orders, congreganists, there are 8,635 male teachers and assistant teachers; 4,243 mistresses and assistant mistresses."

School Population—School Attendance.—"According to the last census, in a population of 37,382,225 inhabitants, there were reported 4,018,427 children from 7 to 10 years of age. That is an average of 10.7 children for every 100 inhabitants. The children from 7 to 10 years of age receive instruction in the primary schools were in number 3,143,540. There would remain, then, 874,887 children who did not attend any school. But there should be deducted the children who receive instruction at home and in the public and private establishments of secondary instruction to which are attached primary departments."

(I omit numerous details as to the length of the time the different classes of pupils attend the school, and the average amount of knowledge they possess on leaving school; also expenditures for the erection and repairs of school-houses.)

23.—THE EXPENSE OF THE FRENCH SYSTEM AND HOW PROVIDED.

Primary Schools.—The ordinary expense of primary instruction in France, in 1863, (not including buildings and some other extraordinary expenses) was 58,674,700 francs, or \$11,734,940. This sum is derived from the following sources:—

1. From endowments, gifts and legacies, designed for the ordinary expenses of the primary and infant schools..... 2,195,640 francs or (\$439,128)
2. From Communes, (ordinary resources, 3 centimes, special and extraordinary taxes, for the ordinary expenses.) 25,316,590 " (\$5,063,318)
3. From families,—
Fees of public, boys and mixed schools.... 13,739,590 francs (\$2,747,918)

Fees of girls schools.....	4,541,819	"	(\$908,364)
Fees of infant schools.....	324,310	"	(\$64,862)
Fuel	832,316	"	(\$166,463)
Fees of adults.....	291,830	"	(\$58,366)
4. From Normal Schools, (their own resources)...	77,885	"	(\$15,577)
5. From cities and towns for the support of Normal Schools.....	43,275	"	(\$8,655)
6. By families for the board of pupil-teachers in the Normal Schools.....	464,420	"	(\$92,884)
7. From the Departments for primary instruc- tion.....	5,643,220	"	(\$1,128,644)
8. From the State for primary instruction.....	5,203,810	"	(\$1,040,762)
Total.....	58,674,700	"	(\$11,734,940)

"*School Buildings*—From the statistics it also appears that the Departments have voted 1,260,992 francs, or \$252,198, for the building of primary and Normal Schools; that private individuals have contributed by gifts and subscriptions to these expenses no less than 16,979,558 francs, or \$3,395,911.

"*Private Schools*—The above figures do not comprehend the resources of boarding schools, or the sums paid by families to private seminaries of various kinds, or to secondary schools in which primary instruction is given, or the receipts of teachers from accessory functions, amounting in 1863, to 4,219,587 francs, (\$843,917) or the central administration, or general inspection of "primary instruction, or the rectors, or prefectorial administrations."

24.—CHILDREN NOT ATTENDING SCHOOL—EFFORTS TO REDUCE THE NUMBER.

The following are the remarks and explanations of the Minister of Public Instruction on this point:

"The progress made during the last sixteen years has been less rapid than during the preceding period, because this was the period of creation. It is, however, considerable; for from 1847 to 1863, we have opened 8,566 public schools, and gained 806,223 pupils, or an average of 50,000 per annum.* At present there remain only 818 communes unprovided with schools, yet the greater part of these localities send their children to schools in the vicinity.

"But if we take, as the regulations require for the Normal limits of school age, from 7 to 13 years, we find in the primary schools in 1863, only 3,133,540 children of that age, out of 4,018,427, which, according to the census made by the Inspector in 1863, must exist in entire France. There would then be a deficit of 884,887 children from 7 to 13 years of age. The University inspection reports only 692,678. But these estimates must be below the truth, because the teachers have not the means of knowing, in large cities, the exact number of children who do not attend school. Besides, whatever may be, as to the primary schools, the figure of the non-attendance of children

*In these figures are included the schools and pupils of the three departments lately annexed. In Savoy and Nice, the public schools number 1,528, and the pupils in the public and private schools, 86,812.

from 7 to 18 years of age, it should not be regarded as expressing the number of those who are completely destitute of instruction. There are, in fact, a certain number of children of that age who receive their first instruction in the family, or in the elementary classes of secondary establishments. Besides, many others enter the school only at eight or nine years of age, or leave the primary school before their thirteenth year.

25.—REASONS FOR NON-ATTENDANCE AFTER THE AGE OF TWELVE.

“In regard to childhood, the acts of the religious life, regulate, in general the duration of the school period. The first Communion in the Catholic Church takes place between 11 and 12 years of age. Very few children attend the school when they have no more catechism to recite, as many go there only to learn it. In Protestant countries, where the first Communion is at about 16 years of age, this limit is also that of school age; and this delay which, in some degree, prolongs childhood, prolongs also the study of the school. It is one of the reasons which explain the superiority, in regard to primary instruction of Protestant over Catholic States. Another reason is found in the religious obligation imposed upon every Protestant to read, assiduously, the Bible. A third reason is in the rich donations which the zeal of individuals has secured to schools, especially during the last thirty or forty years.”*

The French and English systems of Elementary Education as compared by Matthew Arnold, Esq., M. A., the English Educational Commissioner to France, in his report to the English Royal Commissioners, in 1860, printed by order of the Government, and presented to both Houses of Parliament.

26.—COMPARATIVE EXPENSIVENESS OF THE FRENCH AND ENGLISH SYSTEMS.

French Expenditure.—“It appears from the above figures that had the communes borne the full ordinary expenses of their schools, as well as the extraordinary expenses actually contributed by them, they would have had to find a sum of, in round numbers, £1,507,740 (\$7,538,700). They actually bore a charge of £874,200 (\$4,371,000), but of this they were legally bound to bear but £478,200 (\$2,391,000). They voluntarily undertook a burden of £396,000 (\$1,980,000). Families and private persons contributed, in school fees, board, and donations, about £423,900 (\$2,119,500). The departments bore a charge of £210,920 (\$1,054,600); of this, the obligations of the law imposed on them £164,040 (\$820,200); they voluntarily taxed themselves for £46,880 (\$234,400). Finally, the State directly contributed about £206,800 (\$1,034,000) (nearly the same amounts as the departments): to defray regular charges which it had undertaken to make good, it paid £146,400 (\$732,000); while for the additional expenses which have been detailed it granted £60,400 (\$302,000).

*Note by the Translator.—In the various countries of the Continent no child or young person can be apprenticed to a trade or profession, or be admitted into the army, before the first communion, or confirmation, which is preceded in both the Catholic and Protestant Churches, by a course of religious instruction; among the Protestant clergy, at least in Paris, embracing the Evidences and Doctrines, as well as duties of Christianity.

"The expenses of primary instruction above enumerated do not include the expense of the central administration in Paris. This, for 1856, was 659,048f. (\$131,809);* in round numbers, £26,360 (\$131,800). Not more than one-third of this charge, which embraces the services of superior, secondary, and primary instruction, belongs to primary instruction. We must add the salaries of four inspectors-general at 8,000 francs each—32,000 francs (\$6,400), and their travelling allowances—10,000 francs (\$2,000). This will give a total of, in round numbers, £10,470 (\$52,350), to be added to the general expense of primary instruction in 1856. The general total will then, instead of £1,700,000 (\$8,500,000), become £1,710,470 (\$8,552,350), considerably less than one million and three-quarters sterling, or \$8,552,350.†

"Public primary instruction in France, then, cost in the year 1856 about £1,710,500 (\$8,552,500), of this, parish taxation (as we should say) contributed somewhat less than nine-seventeenths; county taxation about two-seventeenths; the consolidated fund about two-seventeenths; and school-fees and private benevolence somewhat more than four-seventeenths. Taxation, obligatory and voluntary, produced, altogether, nearly £1,295,000 (\$6,475,000); that is to say, it produced more than three-fourths of the whole amount expended.

French Schools—"What will, I think, most strike the reader in considering these figures will be this—the immense number of schools maintained in proportion to the money spent. France possessed, in 1856, 65,100 Primary Schools. Of this number all but 15,000 were not aided, but maintained out of an expenditure of considerably less than one million and three-quarters sterling; the 15,000 private schools received amongst them some assistance out of it, but 50,100 public schools were, I repeat, maintained. Nor does the total of 65,000 primary schools include infant schools, numbering 2,684 in 1859,‡ and receiving 262,000 infants. Neither does it include adult schools, apprentice schools, needle-work schools, educating among them a great number of pupils, and nearly all assisted, some supported, out of this expenditure, but for which unfortunately, there are no collected statistics of as recent a date as 1856.§ If added, these would certainly carry the number of places of instruction for the poorer classes in France to 75,000, and the number of learners in them to above four millions. But, omitting these, omitting the private schools, for £1,710,000 (\$8,550,000) a year, more than 50,000 schools are entirely maintained, and more than three millions and a half of children are instructed."

* "Thus divided—Personnel, 472,237 francs (\$94,447); matériel, 180,711 francs (\$36,142); Indemnités à des employés supprimés, 6,099 francs (\$1,219). See the *Compte définitif des Dépenses de l'Exercice, 1856* (Service de l'Instruction publique, Paris, 1858).

† The services of rectors and academy-inspectors (taking, under the head of Administration Academique, a sum of 817,523 francs (\$163,504) in the estimates of 1856) are in part given to primary instruction; but as these functionaries strictly belong to superior and secondary instruction, I charge primary instruction with no share in this item.

‡ "Infant Schools in France are now regulated by the decree of March the 21st, 1855, which places them under the immediate patronage of the Empress and of a Central Committee. The decree establishes inspectresses of infant schools, one for each of the sixteen Academies of France: these ladies are named by the Minister, and paid by the State, they receive £80 (\$400) a year and allowances for travelling.

§ In 1848 there were 6,877 adult schools in France, with 115,164 pupils. In 1843 there were 36 Apprentice schools, with 1,268 scholars, and 145 ouvriers or needlework schools, with 5908 girls attending them.

French Gross Results.—"Assume the whole expenditure to contribute equally to this result; then to the three-fourths raised by taxation, three-fourths of the School results effected are due; in other words, for £1,295,000 (\$6,475,000), more than 27,500 Schools are maintained, and more than two millions and a half of children are taught.

English Expenditure and Schools.—"In Great Britain according to the latest returns, the annual expenditure on primary instruction, properly so called, was about £800,000 (\$4,000,000). Putting out of sight, as we have put out of sight in the case of France, the value received for this expenditure in the shape of administration, inspection, &c., let us ask what is achieved for Schools and Scholars? It maintained no schools, but it aided, we will assume, in one way or other, all the schools liable to inspection; and on this estimate, which 'is exaggerated, it aided 8,461 primary schools to exist, and it helped 934,040 children to receive instruction. In France the same grant would have entirely maintained nearly 25,000 schools, and to more than a million and a half of children it would have entirely given instruction.

"The reader will also, I think, be interested to observe that in France taxation for schools does not appear to extinguish voluntary efforts for their support. Certainly, in France, the local interest about schools, the local knowledge about school matters, does not approach to that which we find in England. Yet in spite of this it appears that the French communes—already compulsorily taxed, whether they send their children to school or not, to the amount of £478,200 (\$2,391,000) for primary instruction—already compulsorily taxed, if they send their children to school, to the amount of £372,000 (\$1,860,000) for school fees—voluntarily impose on themselves an additional taxation of £396,000 (\$1,980,000) a year, in order to make their boys' schools better, in order to provide themselves with girls' schools and infant schools, the establishment of which the law does not make obligatory. It appears that the departments having already undergone a compulsory rate of £164,040 (\$820,200) for the establishment of the departmental Normal Schools, and for the assistance of the communal primary schools, voluntarily rate themselves to the amount of £46,880 (\$234,400) more, in order to train school mistresses, to improve school-buildings, to furnish school books to the poor, to supply other wants for which the law does not provide. The truth is that a school system, once established in a locality, inevitably renders school matters a subject of interest and occupation with the inhabitants of that locality, even though they may not all be very ardent or very enlightened school promoters; and a normal or a village school in France, which local zeal would probably never have been strong enough to found, local attachment is generally strong enough to maintain and improve when founded.

27.—NATIONAL AND RELIGIOUS CHARACTER OF THE FRENCH AND ENGLISH SYSTEMS.

"I have now briefly to sum up the main points of the French system; and I will then in conclusion attempt, although with great diffidence, to give some estimate of its effects upon the French people.

French Religious Element.—"First, then, with respect to a question which meets every system of education upon the threshold—the great question, shall it be secular or shall it be religious? The French system is religious; not in the sense in which all systems profess to be more or less religious, in inculcating the precepts of a certain universal and indisputable morality; it inculcates the doctrines of morality in the only way in which the masses of mankind ever admit them in their connection with the doctrines of religion. I believe that the French system is right. When I come to speak of Holland I shall have more to say on this matter, and shall perhaps be able to give some important information concerning it, at present I content myself with saying that this side the French system has chosen. Here it coincides with the systems of England and Germany. Morality—but dignified, but sublimed by being taught in connection with religious sentiment; but legalized, but empowered by being taught in connection with religious dogma—this is what the French system makes the indispensable basis of its primary instruction.

"But what dogma? Secular education is one; it would be well if religious education could be one also. It would be well, unquestionably, if there reigned everywhere one truly Catholic religious faith, embracing all the faithful in a common bond. But the spirit of sect exists; it has committed its ravages; it is necessary to take account of them. Forcibly to repress it is impossible, except by evoking a spirit more noxious than even the spirit of sect—the spirit of religious persecution. But the French system does not seek divisions; it accepts those that are radical, irreconcilable. All minor shades of division that are not incurably separate, that may without violence to their nature combine, it leaves to combine; it does not deepen by distinguishing them. Protestantism and Roman Catholicism, the great rival systems of authority and enquiry; Judaism, inveterate in its faded isolation; these it recognizes as necessary, irreconcilable, religious divisions in a modern State of Western Europe. It recognizes these, but it recognizes no other. In an Empire of thirty-six millions it recognizes no other.

English Religious Element.—"Here the English system diverges. In Great Britain, in a population of 21,000,000, it recognizes no less than seven religious incompatibilities. If it followed the French example, it would accept, as denominations essentially distinct, at most only Anglicanism, non-Anglican Protestantism, Roman Catholicism, Judaism. As it is, it distinguishes Anglican Protestantism, the Biblicalism of the British and Foreign School Society, the Protestantism of Wesleyan Methodism, the Protestantism of the Orthodox Church of Scotland, the Protestantism of the Free Church of Scotland, the Protestantism of the Episcopalian Church of Scotland and Roman Catholicism.* But the divergence does not stop here. The French system recognizes certain religious divisions in the population; but it does not divide itself in order to meet them. It maintains its own unity, its own impartiality. In their relations with the State, with the civil power, all denominations have to

* We have an eighth class of schools in the Poor Law Union Schools; but here the distinction, (though perhaps needless,) is at any rate based on administrative, not on religious grounds.

meet upon a common ground; the State does not make itself denominational, they have to make themselves national. When the Concordat was under discussion, neither supplication nor adroitness could prevail with Napoleon to give to the State itself an exclusive denominational character, he steadily refused to call the Roman Catholic religion the religion of the State; he would only consent to call it what it undoubtedly was, the religion of the majority of the French nation. State inspection represents the unity of the civil power, not the divisions of rival sects. It takes care that children learn in the public schools, each the doctrines of his own religion; but it protects each in learning these, from the intolerance of the others, and itself remains neutral, that it may check intolerance the better. The State, therefore, owes no account to any man of the religious persuasion of its inspectors; for it is not as religious sectaries they have to discharge their duties, but as civil servants; and the moment they begin to discharge them as religious sectaries, they discharge them ill.

English Denominational Influence.—"In England the State makes itself denominational with denominations. It offers to them no example of a civil unity in which religious divisions are lost; in which they meet as citizens, though estranged as sectaries. It makes its inspectors Anglican with the Anglicans, Roman Catholic with the Roman Catholics, Orthodox Presbyterian with the Old Church of Scotland, Free Church with the New. It does not hold itself aloof from the religious divisions of the population; it enters into them.

"What has been the result? By dint of concession to the denominational spirit, by dint of not maintaining an impartial and unsectarian character, the State in England has been betrayed into a thousand anomalies, and has created a system far more irritating to sectarian susceptibilities than if it had regarded none of them. More than four-fifths of the population of France profess Roman Catholicism, and about one-three-hundredth part of French inspection is in the hands of Roman Catholic ecclesiastics. One-half of the population of England professes Anglicanism, and more than three-fourths of English inspection is in the hands of Anglican ecclesiastics. I heard the other day of an English National School aided by public money, the only school in the place, which had for one of its regulations that no child of dissenting parents should be admitted unless he consented to be re-baptized. I saw with my own eyes the other day, in a British school aided by public money, a printed placard stuck up in a conspicuous place in the school room, offering a reward of £10 to any Roman Catholic who could prove by text, ten propositions: such as that we ought to adore the Virgin Mary, that we ought to pray for the dead, that St. Peter was unmarried, that he ever was Bishop of Rome, and so on. Is it tolerable that such antics should be played in schools on which the grant of public money confers a public character? Would it be possible that they should be played in a public school in France, where the state permits liberty of conscience, but not liberty of persecution? But it is said that the State in England has bound itself not to interfere with the management of the schools which it aids. True, but whom does this answer

excuse? It excuses the functionaries who administer the system, not the State which made and maintains it. No State has the right thus to shackle its own reason and its own equity.

28.—FINANCIAL PROVISION FOR SCHOOLS IN FRANCE.

Schools and Teachers.—"The French system, having undertaken to put the means of education within its people's reach, has to provide schools and teachers. Here again it altogether diverges from ours, which has by no means undertaken to put the means of education within the people's reach, but only to make the best and richest elementary schools better and richer. Should it ever undertake what the French system has undertaken, perhaps it is in the plan for the provision of schools that it will find its predecessor happiest. Where everything is left to be done by voluntary effort, schools where most needed are not established at all. Where everything, again, is left to be done by the State, there is wasteful extravagance and local apathy. Where everything, finally, is left to be done by the parish, there is niggardly pinching. The French plan places its schools chiefly, but not absolutely, in the hands of local boards; it tempers the parsimony of the parish with the more liberal views of the central power, and between the parish contributor and the State contributor it places a third contributor of less narrow spirit than the first, of more economical spirit than the second,—the Department or County.

Salaries and Rewards.—"I am bound to add, however, that in one most important particular, its provision for teachers, the French system has recoiled, through fear of expense, from making adequate use of the machinery at its disposal. The best authorities are all agreed that the fixed salary of the teacher was put by the law of 1833 too low, and that the law of 1850 ought to have raised it directly, instead of attempting in a circuitous manner to provide a palliative for its insufficiency.* At present the lay teachers tend to quit their profession as soon as they can, for some more profitable career. If it were not for the inducement offered by the exemption from military service, it would be difficult to recruit their ranks. It is in vain that the State offers to them the lure of honourable mentions, medals of bronze and of silver,* and even the rank of academic officer, with the privilege of wearing an official coat with a palm embroidered on the collar;† these public distinctions to the teacher are excellent, but they are of no avail so long as he is utterly underpaid.

29.—CENTRAL AND LOCAL CONTROL OF TEACHERS—INSPECTION.

"The State has provided schools and teachers; under what authority shall it place them? Of Inspection, the great guarantee of efficiency, it has abundance; it has first Inspectors general, then rectors and academy inspectors, then primary inspectors, then cantonal delegates, then the parish authorities, the mayor and the minister of the persuasion followed by the

* In the year 1857 (the latest for which I have any returns) the sum spent by the State on medals for teachers was 2,728 francs (\$645).

† Decret du 9 Decembre, 1850.

scholars. But what authority shall give effect to the representations of all this inspection? Local school committees, said the law of 1833, rectors of academies, representing the Department of Public Instruction, said the law of 1852; the Prefect representing the Home Department says the present law. The local school committees had undoubtedly performed their work ill. Perhaps in England a well chosen county committee might safely be intrusted with the functions which in France, under the law of 1833, the district committee performed so unsatisfactorily; but to give them to the more narrowly local body, to the communal committee, to the parish vestry, would be to destroy your school system, however promising. To superintend the actual expenditure of money voted, to inspect and to report to a higher authority, is the proper province of the parochial committee. It cannot be safely trusted with full powers over the teacher. The most liberal persons in France consider it proved by the working of the law of 1833, that, for public schools, it is expedient to give the ultimate power of confirming or dismissing the teacher to some central authority. With us, indeed, the central government has no power to get rid of a school master, the most destructive or the most negligent. It can dismiss a school inspector, but it cannot dismiss a school teacher. Our system provides its chief educational shepherd with abundant resources against his own watch-dogs; with none against the wolf. In France the local committees no longer retain powers which they showed themselves unfit to exercise. But from the local committees to the prefect is a prodigious step. The prefect and the Home department, stern authorities of police and public order, are scarcely the proper authorities for dealing with schools and teachers, unless some actual breach of the law has been committed. The Ministry of Public Instruction with its academies and rectors is in some sort a literary department of State; and with this character it has something of the humanity of letters. The teachers themselves would prefer the government of the rector to that of the prefect. It is true that the prefect generally acts on the advice of the rector's representative, the academy inspector; but the rector himself and the minister, his superior, are much the fittest persons to act upon this advice, and would act upon it with quite sufficient stringency.

30.—FRENCH AND ENGLISH SYSTEMS OF INSPECTION COMPARED.

"The machinery of French inspection is perhaps a little redundant. It is found impossible to obtain from the cantonal delegates, unpaid and with occupations of their own, that regular intervention in the details of primary instruction which the Government solicits from them. Possibly if they gave it it might be found to bring with it as many difficulties as advantages. A general supervision, with the office of keeping the higher school authorities informed, so that the teacher may feel that neither his efforts nor his negligence escape notice,—that is, perhaps, all that can be judiciously asked of the local authorities, or that they can properly give. All above the cantonal delegates is excellent. The primary inspectors are the very life of the school system; their inspection is a reality, because made when not expected: the Nancy inspector who went round

the schools of that town with me, had a pass-key by which he let himself into any one of them when he pleased, and he told me that he entered every public school in the town fifty times in the year. The academy inspectors, receiving the reports of the primary inspectors, and themselves in connection with the sixteen academies of France, supply local centres for dealing with the mass of details received from the primary inspectors, and thus relieve the central office in Paris. The four inspectors-general, in personal communication with the school authorities, the primary inspectors and the minister, preserve the latter from the danger of falling a victim to the routine of his own bureaux, while he also obtains from four picked and superior men a unity of appreciation of school matters which he would seek for in vain from the 275 primary inspectors, chosen necessarily with less advantage of selection. If I were asked to name the four deficiencies most unanimously remarked in our system by the most competent foreign judges, whom I met, they would be these:—first, the want of distinct centres for managing the current details of school business, and the consequent inundation of our London office with the whole of them. Secondly, the inconceivable prohibition to our primary inspectors to inspect without previous notice. Thirdly, the denial of access into the ranks of the primary inspectors to the most capable public schoolmasters. Fourthly, and above all, the want of Inspectors-general.

31.—COMPARATIVE INFLUENCE OF FRENCH AND ENGLISH SCHOOL LEGISLATION.

“The intelligence of the French people is well known; in spite of their serious faults, in spite of their almost incredible ignorance it places them among the very foremost of ancient and modern nations. It is the source of their highest virtue, (for the bravery of this people is rather a physical than a moral virtue,) of a certain natural equity of spirit in matters where most other nations are intolerant and fanatical. I suppose that this intelligence is a thing not altogether peculiar and innate in the people of France; if it were the upper classes, adding high culture to this exclusive natural gift, would exhibit over the upper classes of other nations a superiority of which they certainly have not given proof. If it is culture which develops this intelligence in the higher ranks of all nations, then of some culture or other the French masses, in spite of their want of book-learning, must be feeling the beneficent operation, if they show an intelligence which the masses of other nations do not possess. This culture they do actually receive; many influences are at work in France which tend to impart it to them; amongst these influences I number their school legislation.

French and English Legislative Diction.—“This works partly by its form, partly by its spirit. By its form it educates the national intelligence, no otherwise than as all French legislation tends thus to educate it; but even this is worth noticing. It is not a light thing that the law which speaks to all men should speak an intelligible human language, and speak it well. Reason delights in rigorous order, lucid clearness and simple statement. Reason abhors devious intricacy, confused obscurity and prolix repetition. It is not unimportant to the reason of a nation whether the form and text of its laws present the characters which reason delights in or the characters which reason abhors. Certainly the text of an English Act of Parliament never carried to an unedu-

cated English mind anything but bewilderment. I have myself heard a French peasant quote the Code Napoleon—it is in every one's hands; it is its rational form, hardly less than its rational spirit, that the Code has to thank for a popularity which makes half the nations of Europe desirous to adopt it. If English law breathed in its spirit the wisdom of angels, its form would make it to foreign nations inaccessible. The style and diction of all the modern legislation of France are the same as those of the Code. Let the English reader compare, in their style and diction alone, M. Guizot's education law, with the well-known bill of a most sincere and intelligent friend of English education, Sir John Pakington. Certainly, neither was the French law drawn by M. Guizot himself, nor the English bill by Sir John Pakington; each speaks the current language of its national legislation. But the French law, (with a little necessary formality, it is true,) speaks the language of modern Europe; the English bill speaks the language of the Middle Ages, and speaks it ill. I assert that the rational intelligible speech of this great public voice of her laws has a directly favourable effect upon the general reason and intelligence of France.

Spirit of French School Legislation.—"From the form I pass to the spirit. With still more confidence I say: It is not a light thing for the reason and equity of a nation that her laws should boldly utter prescriptions which are reasonable and equitable. It is not a light thing for the spread, among the French masses, of a wise and moderate spirit on the vital and vexed questions of religion and education, that the law of 1833 should say firmly: *Le vœu des pères de famille sera toujours consulté et suivi en ce que concerne la participation de leurs enfants à l'instruction religieuse!* It is not a light thing that the whole body of modern French legislation on these critical questions should hold a language equally firm, equally liberal. To this it is owing that in a sphere where the popular cry in other countries, either cannot be relied on or is sure to be wrong, there exists in France a genial current of sound public opinion, blowing steadily in the right quarter. To this it is owing that from dangers, which perpetually thwart and threaten intellectual growth in other countries, intellectual growth in France is comparatively secure. To this, finally, it is owing that even on questions beyond this sphere—if they assume a sufficient generality and do not demand a large knowledge of particular facts, of which the mass of Frenchmen is deplorably ignorant—the habit of intelligence continues in the French people to be active and to enlighten. It is with truth that M. Guizot says in his latest work, '*C'est la grandeur de notre pays que les esprits ont besoin d'être satisfaits en même temps que les intérêts.*'

32.—SUMMARY COMPARISON OF THE FRENCH AND ENGLISH SYSTEMS.

"Well then, to two nations thus alike in greatness and so constituted that education can only augment their power and worth, what system of education do their Governments offer? In France a national system which, though very unpretending, is all that a government can prudently attempt to make universal—a system fixing a low level, certainly, of popular instruction; but one which the mounting tide of national wealth and well-being will inevitably push up

higher. And this system is so framed as not only not to favour popular unreason or popular intolerance, but positively to encourage and educate popular reason and popular equity. In England, a system not national, which has undoubtedly done much for superior primary instruction, but which for elementary primary instruction has done very little. That it may accomplish something important for the latter, some have conceived the project of making it national. Against this project there are, it seems to me, grave objections. It is a grave objection that the system is over-centralised—that it is too negligent of local machinery—that it is inordinately expensive. It is a graver, that to make it national would be to make national a system not salutary to the national character in the very points where that character most needs a salutary corrective; a system which, to the loud blasts of unreason and intolerance, sends forth no certain counterblast; which submissively accompanies the hatefulest and most barren of all kinds of dispute, religious dispute, into its smallest channels;—stereotypes every crotchet, every prejudice, every division by recognizing it, and suggests to its recipients no higher rationality than it finds in them.”

II.—PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN PRUSSIA.

The Prussian system of Public Instruction has attracted the attention of other countries more, and is better known than that of any other country in Europe. The most elaborate account of the Prussian system is that of M. Victor Cousin, who visited Prussia by order of the French Government in 1831, and whose report embraces not only an account of primary education, but, also of the higher schools and Universities. But it is a singular-fact that M. Cousin's *account of Primary Education* in his celebrated Report is taken, not from published laws and regulations, but from a scheme proposed by the Count Von Altenstein, who was Minister of Public Instruction at the time of M. Cousin's mission and for many years afterwards; but the scheme thus prepared and elaborated into various and minute details, and which it was doubtless expected would soon become the law of the land, and as such expounded to M. Cousin, was never put into execution, or published, or enacted; but it remains unprinted and unauthorized in the archives of the Ministry of Public Instruction in Berlin at the present day, though M. Cousin called it the “law” and said “That “it is the most comprehensive law on primary instruction with which I am “acquainted.”

The fact is the Prussian administration of government in regard to education, as well as in other matters, is provincial—the growth of a century and more—

the result of usages, laws, decrees, regulations, instructions in each of her ten provinces, or local governments, and varying according to the circumstances and population of each of those provinces, though the fundamental principles and many features of it are common to all the provinces. It is only since 1855 that there has been a general school law in Prussia.

The remarks I have to make relate to Prussia as it was before the recent war with Austria.

1.—PROVINCIAL AND MUNICIPAL ORGANIZATION OF THE KINGDOM.

Provinces.—Down to within the last two years, the Kingdom of Prussia was divided into ten Provinces; each of these Provinces is sub-divided into twenty-five *Regencies*; each Regency is again sub-divided into Circles, and each Circle into Parishes. Each *Province* has its *Governor* (Ober President), who is assisted by a Council called a Consistory, exercising functions for the Province similar to what the Supreme Ministerial Council at Berlin exercises for the whole Kingdom. It has direct control over the Secondary instruction and the Normal schools for the education of primary teachers in the province. It is sub-divided into two Sections, the one of which, under the title of School Board (*Provinzial Schul Collegium*), has charge of the primary instruction in the province; empowers the execution of the Statutes and regulations; examines text-books, permits their introduction, after having obtained the approbation of the Central Ministry. This board communicates with the higher authorities through its President, to whom also the next lower authority reports.

Regency.—The next smaller political division, after the Province, is the *Regency*, presided over by a President and assisted by a Council called, also, a Regency. This Council is divided into three sections, one having charge of the internal affairs, the second of the direct taxes, the third of church and school matters. The Church and School Committee examines and appoints all the teachers of elementary and burgher schools, sees to keeping in order the churches and school-houses, collects the church and school fees and administers the church and school funds. This Committee is presided over by a member of the Regency, called the School Councillor (*Schul-rath*), who is invested with large powers, visits and examines the condition of the schools, has a seat in the Council or Consistory of the Province, and reports to it on the affairs of his regency.

Circle.—Then in each of the Circles into which the Regency is divided is a Councillor (Landrath), who administers its civil affairs, and an *Inspector*, a clergyman, who has charge of several parishes in school affairs.

Parish.—The Circle being again divided into Parishes or Communes, each Parish must, by law, have its school, and each school its Committee of Superintendence (*Schul Vorstand*), consisting of the Curate, two Magistrates and from two to four notables. This Committee appoints a local school Inspector, who is usually the clergyman of the parish.

Inspectors.—The Inspectors, either of circles or parishes, seldom receive any salary as such, the duty being regarded as a part of their ecclesiastical functions.

School Board.—In the cities and large towns there is a Board of Management over all the schools, called *School Deputation*, consisting of the Burgo-master, (*Mayor*) pastors or curates, directors of the gymnasiums and real schools, and a number of the Municipal Council appointed by the Government to oversee all the schools. There is also a Committee of Management over each school.

2.—EXECUTIVE POWER OVER THE WHOLE SYSTEM IN PRUSSIA.

Functionaries.—There is thus a regular gradation of authorities from the school master up to the Minister of Education, and every part of the system of primary instruction takes its direction from the highest authorities, and is within the control of the Central Government, which appoints the Governors of Provinces, the Presidents of Regencies, (sometimes called Prefects of Departments,) the Councillors (*Landraths*) of Circles, and the Magistrates of Parishes. These Executive Functionaries can veto the proceedings of any of the Councils, Boards or Committees over which they preside, and, in some instances, control the very constitution of such boards. For example, in most of the Provinces of Prussia the householders elect a representative of their own to the local school board; but by the Governmental regulations of 1858 the Councillor or *Landrath* of the Circle may, in his discretion and without assigning any reason, refuse to confirm the election of any representative so chosen by the householders. Then the householders must proceed to elect another representative; and should the *Landrath* see fit to reject their second presentee they lose the right of election for that time, and the *Landrath* fills up the place by a nominee of his own. And, still further, by these regulations of 1858, the Chairman of any local school board is empowered to suspend any resolution regularly passed by a majority of the board, provided, that within eight days he lays his objections before the *Landrath* or Inspector of the Circle, who then decides upon its validity. A Board of School Trustees thus constituted and controlled is a mockery of self-administration, and with such a system under a despotic Government, the provisions of any law may be successfully enforced.

3.—RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION AND SEPARATE SCHOOLS.

Religious Instruction.—In regard to religious instruction in connexion with the schools, it has always been recognized throughout Protestant Germany, that the Church as well as the State has an obligation in respect to elementary education. The English Commissioner (Rev. M. Pattison) remarks in his report that "The relations of the Protestant Church with the Central Government in the matter of education are harmonious. The Catholic Church, on the contrary, is in a condition of perpetual discord with the State on this subject." The pastor of the parish is ex-officio local inspector of the schools, both chief and affiliated, within his parish; but the term Inspector implies much more than is meant by it in England, including superintendence as well as visitation. The composition of the local school board varies in different provinces; but in all the clergyman of the parish is a member; in most he is chairman. In cases where, as in the provinces of Prussia, the chairmanship of the board is reserved for the patron of the school; yet as the patron, probably a great landed proprietor, is

never present, the clergyman takes his place. Practically in country places in many of the provinces, as Pomerania, Silesia, &c. the other members of the Board of Management either never attend its meetings, or if they do, only to sanction what the pastor proposes. In towns the local authority is exercised in a more efficient way by a body called *School Deputation*. The members of these local boards receive no remuneration, and are obliged to serve for six years. The last regulation on the subject of religious instruction—the 24th article of the Constitution of 1851—is as follows:—

“In the ordering of the people’s school, regard shall be had as far as possible to denominational relations. The religious instruction of the people’s school is under the conduct of the respective religious bodies.”

Separate Schools.—The primary schools in Prussia have been from the beginning in the 16th century denominational and chiefly Protestant until the present century. By the law of 1794 the school was assigned a place among the other *State* institutions; but it remained subject to the inspection and management of the ecclesiastical authorities. Provision was, however, made for the recognition, management, ceremonial observances and teaching of Roman Catholic schools, and when the Prussian Monarchy, after the Napoleonic invasion, grew in extent and aggregated large masses of Roman Catholic subjects in Silesia, Posen, Glatz, Westphalia, &c., Roman Catholic schools became an important as well as integral part of the school system. The schools existing in those countries at the time of their annexation to Prussia were Roman Catholic—that is denominational. The law of obligatory attendance was either already in force or was without difficulty applied to them. Protestants and Roman Catholics obtained at once that equal footing on which they still stand in Prussia. But their schools are for the most part separate. Mr. Pattison remarks: “Were the question asked, is the Prussian system at the present moment a system of mixed or denominational education? The answer must be that there is no general law for the whole Kingdom on the subject.” According to the letter of the law any *Commune* is free to have a mixed school if it can agree to do so, and can obtain the consent of the authorities; but so strong is now the feeling against mixed schools that it is scarcely likely that this consent would ever be asked, or, were it asked, would be granted. By a mixed school is meant one in which the teachers are taken in equal proportions from the two religions. In a village school where there is only one trustee the method was to appoint a Protestant and a Catholic alternately, on the vacancy of the office, an expedient at one time not uncommon in Posen and East Prussia, which has ceased since 1856. The strictly secular school was introduced into the Western Provinces with the French law, as a necessary portion of the municipal system of that law in which the *Commune* is a purely civil division; but though the Napoleon Code is still retained a cherished possession by the inhabitants of the left bank of the Rhine, the schools have almost all become confessional (denominational) schools, and this without any legislative enactment, but by the mere current of circumstances. The *Commune* still remains a civil corporation with the obligation of maintaining both churches and schools

for the inhabitants within its boundaries; but the preference of *confessional* schools is now so decided that Protestants and Catholics have invariably *separate* schools. In poor and remote villages a few mixed schools may still remain in the Rhine province, but they are only kept so by the poorest of the people and are yearly disappearing before the advance of wealth and population..

4.—EDUCATION OF THE MINORITY.

In cases where the minority are unable to establish and maintain a separate school, or do not wish to do so, the following regulations have long existed: "Admittance into the public schools shall not be refused to any one on the ground of diversity of religious confession. Children whom the laws of the State allow to be brought up in any other religion than that which is being taught in the public school, cannot be compelled to attend the religious instruction given in the same."

5.—FUNDS FOR SUPPORTING THE PRUSSIAN SCHOOLS.

As the endowment funds applicable to school purposes are very small, nearly the whole cost of the vast system of elementary education is defrayed by annual taxation of some kind. The funds for supporting the primary schools are derived chiefly from three sources: 1. School fees of children. 2. Local school rate. 3. The general revenue of the State. The appropriation from the general revenue is not made upon the basis of population to each Province, or Regency, or circle; nor is it made to each parish or commune according to either school population, or school attendance; but it is made upon the ground, and only upon the ground of the *poverty* of a commune, like our Poor School grant, and forms therefore a very small proportion of the sums provided and expended in primary instruction. It is not left to a commune whether it will have a school or not, or what number of masters it will have in the school—this is determined by the number of pupils.

6.—OBLIGATIONS OF PARISHES OR COMMUNES IN PRUSSIA.

Every commune must find school room and teaching for all the children from 6 to 14 years of age belonging to it; and every commune must provide for the support of its school, as far as it is able. The law declares that not only shall provision be made for the education of every child of school age, but that every child shall attend school during that age, and that every commune shall provide for the education of its own children, and shall only claim assistance from the State in case of the inability from poverty to fulfil the requirements of the law. The Prussian system of primary instruction is not based upon the principle, nor does its existence or efficiency depend upon the fact, of a large State school fund or grant for the elementary education of all the children of the nation; but it rests upon the obligation of each parish or commune to provide for the common school education of its own children; and its efficiency arises from the universality of the enforcement and fulfilment of this obligation, and the thorough elementary education given to every child in the kingdom. The

State declares what the education shall be, and what shall be the qualifications of the teachers who give it, and what shall be the minimum of the salaries to be paid them, and the minimum and maximum fees to be paid by parents of pupils;* and then enforces this obligation and duty upon each commune, and assists a commune in case of poverty.

The departmental government determines the salary of the teacher. Each commune school has its local board of trustees; but the mode of providing the local funds for the support of the school greatly varies in the different provinces and districts. The following is the common feature: The school board of each commune determines what the *school fees* payable by parents of pupils shall be, the law fixing the minimum at one *groschen* (two cents) per week, and the *maximum* at fifteen Prussian dollars (\$11 25) per year, or a fraction less than a dollar of our money per month. (A Prussian dollar is seventy-one cents of our money.) In determining what these fees shall be, the school board considers what parents are able to pay. These fees are collected by the school board, are applied, as far as they will go, towards the support of the school. They form, however, but a small part of the sum necessary for the support of the school. For the remaining part of the outlay required the school board applies to the commune, which provides by a *rate* on property according to valuation as with us. If this rate according to a certain per centage on the property of the commune, is insufficient to support the school, then application is made for a grant from the State funds. This application must contain a statement of the resources of the commune, and is addressed to the Inspector, who, if he finds it correct, transmits it to the Provincial Government, when it is forwarded to the Minister of Education. Out of the more than 30,000 parishes or communes, comparatively few are thus aided by the State, the aggregate amount granted by which is small in comparison with the sums provided from local sources.† The Prussian law on this subject since 1794 (and which has gradually passed into other States of Germany, and other countries of Europe and America) is as follows:

“Where there are no endowments for the support of common schools, then the maintenance of the teacher falls upon the collective householders, without distinction of religion. The contributions requisite for this purpose, whether they be paid in money or in kind, must be equitably divided among all the householders in the proportion of their property and holdings.

*The principle which guides the fixing of a minimum stipend of a teacher, is the usage of the district, and the comparative expensiveness of living in it. The mention of any particular sum is avoided in the law. It is left to each departmental government to fix the minimum salaries of the several teachers according to the population of the commune and the years of service of the teacher. In a kingdom like Prussia, composed of countries so various in wealth, in style, and in cost of living, what would be a handsome living in one part would by a meagre subsistence in another.

†For example, an addition of 162,842 thalers was made to the salaries of some 34,000 teachers in 1857; but only 35,000 thalers of this sum was paid by the State; 11,908 thalers was paid out of endowment funds, and 117,934 thalers was provided by the communes by means of local taxation. I have not been able to ascertain from any source the *aggregate* sum provided and expended in Prussia for primary instruction.

7.—POPULATION AND SCHOOL CHILDREN IN PRUSSIA.

Population.—The population of Prussia according to the last census before the recent conquests was 18,491,871, of which 11,298,246 were Protestants, 6,906,917 were Catholics, 254,785 Jews, 16,283 German Catholics, 12,716 Menonites and 1,202 belonging to the Greek Church.

School Children.—In these figures are included 848,939 children from 5 to 7 years of age, and 2,731,536 from 7 to 14 years of age.

8.—UNIVERSITIES, COLLEGES, HIGHER AND SPECIAL SEMINARIES IN PRUSSIA.

Summary.—There are in Prussia, 1 Academy of the Sciences; 1 Academy of Technical Science; 6 Universities with the four faculties, in each complete; 2 Catholic Universities of Philosophy and Theology; 13 higher Seminaries or Colleges, of which 9 are Catholic, 3 Protestant, 1 Jewish; 1 [Jewish University of Talmudic Literature; 5 Seminaries or higher Normal schools for training professors of the Gymnasias or Colleges; 1 Academy of Arts; 2 Academies of the Fine Arts; 6 Schools of Arts and Trades; 1 Institute of Church Music; 1 Academy of Bridges, Highways, and Architecture; 1 Academy of Mines; 1 Superior Institute of Commerce; 1 Superior School of Forests; 8 Schools of Agriculture; 1 Academy of the Military Art; 1 School of Engineering and Artillery; 3 Schools of War; 5 Military Schools; 1 Superior Marine School; 5 Schools of Navigation; 2 Schools of Military Surgery; 1 Central Institute, or Superior Normal School, for training Masters of Normal Schools; 144 Gymnasiums or Colleges; 25 Gymnasiums or Preparatory Colleges; 63 Real Schulen or Real Schools; 10 Superior Burgher or Citizen Schools; 25 Provincial Schools of Arts and Trades; 3 Schools of Design for Weavers; 2 Schools of Ordinary Drawing; 57 Seminaries or Normal Schools, for training Masters of the Primary or Common Schools; 25 Institutes for Deaf Mutes; 9 Institutes for the Blind; 70 Superior Schools for Girls; 350 Middling Schools for Boys; 370 Middling Schools for Girls.

9.—STATISTICS OF COMMON SCHOOLS IN PRUSSIA.

According to the latest printed general returns in 1857, there were in Prussia 25,463 Public Elementary Schools containing 2,828,692 children; of whom 1,430,926 were boys and 1,397,766 were girls, and taught by 33,597 male teachers and 3,032 female teachers.

10.—DIFFUSION OF EDUCATION IN PRUSSIA.

As the object of this report is to give an epitome of systems of instruction and their results, rather than explain the subjects and modes of teaching in the schools, it would exceed my prescribed limits and purpose to remark upon the subjects taught in the various kinds and gradations of Prussian Schools, Seminaries, Gymnasiums and Universities above mentioned, the methods of instruction and the modes of preparing teachers and professors for them; all of which is characterized by the solidity and thoroughness which distinguish German

character and learning. In no other country is there so thorough and universal Common School education, or so complete a provision for the education of all classes in all branches of science and literature, and for all the trades, employments and pursuits of life, as well as for the blind, the deaf and dumb.

11.—PRINCIPLE OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN PRUSSIA.

Prussian Education general.—The principle being avowed that every child shall be educated and well educated, the government provides for the removal of every obstacle to the application of that principle. Whenever, therefore, any member of a local council or board neglects his duty or opposes what he should promote in this respect, he is removed and a better man appointed in his place. This is the ground and object for the exercise of what seems an arbitrary power. And upon the same ground is the power of compelling the education of each child from 7 to 14 years of age, inclusive, to prevent any parent from robbing his child of the sacred right of a good education, and of depriving the nation of an educated citizen. Mr. Pattison, the English School Commissioner to Germany remarks, that "The compulsory attendance by itself is now so entirely adopted into their habits that it has quite lost its involuntary character. It is as much a matter of course that the children of the peasant, the farmer, the artizan, the labourer should take their daily road to school, as that those of the tradesman, the merchant, the banker or the judge should. This is a consequence of the universal prevalence of day schools. In attending the day-school the child is but doing what all the children of the place, rich as well as poor, are doing. This habit of universal attendance at the day schools is one of the most precious traditions of the German family. *There is, I believe, a general impression in England that compulsory attendance is a creation of the modern despotic system, dictated by philosophical sovereigns, on the ground of some abstract theory of the right of the State over the child. But the existing Prussian military system dates only from 1814; and, whatever its merits or demerits, is entirely a creation of central authority. The compulsory school attendance dates from the earliest period of the Reformation, and was recognized as a religious duty long before it became a law of the State. From the time of Luther's address to the Municipal Corporations of Germany, 1524, this has been so recognized, whether it was enforced by enactment or not. When, in the beginning of the 18th century, Freidrich Wilhelm began to issue royal ordinances for the regulation and improvement of elementary schools, we find these ordinances *assuming*, not *enacting* de novo, universal school attendance of all unconfirmed persons [confirmation takes place at the age of 14 or 16, after a course of religious instruction]. The usage as a part of the duty of a christian parent had even survived the ruin of the thirty years war. The edict of 1716, which is popularly regarded as the source of the Prussian compulsory system, does really nothing more than give the sanction of the royal ordinance to an existing practice. The *allgemeines land Schulreglement* of 1763 for the first time exactly defines the age, viz.: from 5 to 14; but this was only defining

an obligation universally admitted as one of the first duties of the citizen and the member of the church. Compulsory education in Protestant Germany never had to contend with an adverse public opinion; not because the spirit of personal liberty is wanting, but because, since Protestantism began, there has never been a time when it was not thought part of parental duty to have the children properly educated.

Popularity of the Prussian System of Education.—It is a most mistaken idea to suppose that the Prussian School system is not popular with the mass, even the poorest classes of the people. Mr. Kay, late Travelling Bachelor of the University of Cambridge, in his work on “The Social Condition and Education of the People of England and Europe,” vol. II, pp. 27, 29, states as follows on this subject:—

“I went to Prussia with the firm expectation that I should hear nothing but complaints from the peasants, and that I should find the school nothing but a worthy offshoot of an absolute government. To test whether this really was the case or not, as well as to see something of the actual working of the system in the country districts, I travelled alone through different parts of the Rhine Provinces for four weeks before proceeding to the capital. During the whole of my solitary rambles, I put myself as much as possible into communication with the peasants and with the teachers, for the purpose of testing the actual state of feeling on this question. Judge, then, of my surprise, when I assure my readers that although I conversed with many of the very poorest of the people, and with both Romanists and Protestants, and although I always *endeavoured* to elicit expressions of discontent, I never once heard in any part of Prussia one word spoken by any of the peasants against the educational regulations. But on the contrary, I everywhere received daily and hourly proofs of the most unequivocal character, of the satisfaction and real pride with which a Prussian, however poor he may be, looks upon the schools of his locality.

“Often and often have I been answered by the poor labourers, when asking them whether they did not dislike being *obliged* to educate their children,— ‘Why should I? The schools are excellent; the teachers are very learned and good men; and then think how much good our children are gaining; they behave better at home, they make our families all the happier, and they are much better able in after life to earn their own livelihood. No, no! we do not dislike the schools. We know too well how much good our children are gaining from them.’ And one very poor man of Cologne added, ‘you see, if we are not rich enough to pay the school fees, or to give our children clothes decent enough for the school-room, the town does this for us; so really we have not the least reason to complain.’ I have heard this said over and over again in different parts of Prussia, Saxony, Bavaria, Wirtemberg and Baden; and, indeed, I may add that throughout Germany I never heard one single word of discontent uttered against these truly liberal and christian establishments.

“Every one of the richer classes, with whom I conversed, corroborated the truth of all that the peasants had told me. I particularly remember a very in-

telligent teacher at Elberfeld saying to me, 'I am quite convinced that if we had a political revolution to-morrow, none of the peasants would think of wishing to have any great alteration made in the laws which relate to the schools.' Recent facts have proved the truth of the assertion."

12.—PROTECTION OF PRUSSIAN CHILDREN AS TO EDUCATION AND IN FACTORIES.

The protection of children against the neglect and avarice of unnatural parents and rapacious employers, is humanely provided for in Prussia, as also in other German States. In Berlin every youth proposed to be apprenticed must, at the time of his being apprenticed, be examined by the guild of the trade for which he is destined. If he can read, write and cipher competently for the business, he receives a certificate to that effect. If not he is sent back to school until he is able to do so. "Prussia (says Mr. Pattison) followed by Bavaria, Baden and other states, has minute regulations for the protection of the children employed in factories. The minimum age now in Prussia is 12. No young person under 16 can be employed in a factory without a certificate of having regularly attended school for at least three years, or a certificate stating that the bearer can read and write. This regulation does not apply where the mill-owner supports a school at his own expense, which the children in his employ attend at such hours as the school councillor shall sanction. The maximum number of hours for children under 14 is now reduced from 10 hours to 6, and their employment between 8 p. m. and 5.30 a. m. is prohibited. They must attend school at least three hours daily. Every child has its labour book. These books are supplied gratis to parents or guardians of children. The provisions of the factory laws are printed in the beginning and they contain:—1. Name, age and religion of the child; 2. Name, calling and residence of the parent or guardian; 3. Copy of certificate of school attendance; 4. A column for date of entering present employment; 5. Ditto for date of quitting the mill; 6. Ditto for school attendance; 7. Ditto for school inspector's *visas*. The mill-owner has to take charge of these books for each child in his employ, and to produce them to the inspectors or the commissary of police whenever called for, and to return them to the children on quitting his employment. Special inspectors for factories are appointed only here and there, though they can be sent to any factory. Whether or not any factory be under the supervision of a special inspector, the ordinary inspectors, local and departmental, are required to visit its school (if any) as they do ordinary schools. A manufacturer may be fined for employing persons under 16 without conforming to the prescriptions of this law. A repetition of the offence three times in five years renders him liable to have his permission to employ infant labour withdrawn. He must send the names of all children in his employ twice a year to the public office."

13.—FRENCH SUMMARY VIEW OF PRUSSIAN EDUCATION.

I conclude this brief notice of the Prussian system of public instruction in the words (translated) of the French Government School Commissioner to Germany in 1865:—

"No where, in fact, (says M. Baudouin,) is instruction disseminated with so much liberality, given with so much disinterestedness, and directed with so much care. The smallest hamlet has its primary school; the smallest town its gymnasium, its citizen and real schools perfectly organized, endowed and inspected. In Germany every one is interested in youth; the highest personages and women of the first rank consecrate to it their time, their property, their experience. The best writers write books for small children; the poets for their lessons in vocal music, write verses which the most illustrious composers do not disdain to set to music. The entire German people appear convinced that to occupy themselves with the instruction of youth is to fulfil a personal duty and labour for the future of their country. Each one voluntarily becomes *Volkserzieher*, teacher of the people, and contributes his part to the progress of general instruction."

III.—PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN HOLLAND.

Holland,—one-third less in extent than Upper Canada—lower than the tides of the sea, from which it is protected by natural and artificial embankments, intersected by canals, with a soil naturally unproductive,—is nevertheless second to no country in Europe in its historic glory, in its civilization and its universal diffusion of sound elementary education among the labouring classes, and superior education among the wealthier classes.

1.—CIVIL STATE OF HOLLAND.

Holland is divided into eleven Provinces, each with its Governor and Elective Assembly, composed of from 24 to 90 members besides the National Legislature. The Constitution of government is founded upon the theory of progressive intermediate elections. The ratepayers elect the *Kiezers*, the *Kiezers* elect the Road or Town Council, the Town Council elect a certain proportion of the Provincial Governments, and the Provincial Governments elect the lower chamber of the *States General*, or House of Commons. The *States General* is composed of two chambers; the upper chamber consists of 50 life members, the lower chamber of 55 elective members. The members receive £250 per annum for travelling expenses.

2.—HISTORICAL SKETCH OF EDUCATION IN HOLLAND.

The American School Commissioner, Dr. Baeché, in his *Report on Education in Europe*, 1838, remarks:—"The system of primary instruction in Holland

is peculiarly interesting to an American, from its organization in an ascending series, beginning with the local school authorities and terminating, after progressive degrees of representation, as it were, in the highest authority, instead of emanating, as in centralized systems, from that authority."

The first impulse to an improved system of elementary instruction in Holland originated with a Mennonite Minister named John Nieuvenhuysen, who, with other citizens of Groningen, founded in 1784 the "Society of Public Good," whose objects were three-fold: 1. To prepare and circulate elementary works on religious and moral subjects and the matters of every-day life. 2. To establish Model Schools, and temporary Schools, with libraries for the use of work people who had left school. 3. To make and report enquiries into the true methods of school teaching and discipline, and of the principles of the physical and moral education of children. This was the origin of modern investigations of these subjects and of improved systems of education in both Europe and America. This Society was very energetic and successful; the Government encouraged its efforts to prepare school books, train teachers, excite attention to the state of the schools, and gradually adopted its plans. In 1806, when Holland was a Republic, the various edicts and regulations which had been published from time to time were digested into a law and generalized for the guidance of the country at large, by M. Van den Eude, called the "Father of Public Instruction in Holland," and who, from 1806 to 1833, as Commissioner, and acting under the authority of the Home Department, directed the popular education of his country.

3.—FRENCH STATESMEN ON THE STATE OF EDUCATION IN HOLLAND.

So high was the reputation of the Dutch School Methods and System more than fifty years ago, that the French University deputed M. Cuvier, the great Naturalist, to visit Holland in 1811, and report on the system of Public Education. He described the astonishment and delight he felt in first visiting the Dutch schools, and pronounced them above all praise. I confess that no schools which I have visited in America or in different countries of Europe so deeply and favorably impressed me in regard to discipline, methods of teaching, order and neatness as those which I have visited in the principal cities and towns of Holland—the land, after Denmark, of my forefathers, on my father's side. The English Commissioner, Mr. Arnold, in his report of 1860, says: "I have seen no primary schools worthy to be matched, even now, with those of Holland."

M. Cousin, the great French philosopher and educationist, who has visited and reported on the schools of Prussia and other States of Germany in 1831, and prepared the famous French School Law of M. Guizot in 1833, visited and reported on the School system of Holland in 1836. Referring to the Dutch School Law of 1806, M. Cousin says: "This code of primary instruction was founded upon maxims so wise, so well connected in all its parts, so conformed to the spirit of the country, so easily adapted itself, by the generality of its principles to the convenience of provinces the most different, that it has con-

tinued until the present without any material modifications, through three great revolutions:—that which changed the Batavian Republic into a Kingdom, first independent, afterwards incorporated with France; that which overthrew King Louis, restored the House of Orange and formed Holland and Belgium into one Kingdom; and that which finally separated the two countries, and reduced the Kingdom of the Netherlands within its ancient limits.

4.—STABILITY OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF HOLLAND.

During thirty years no attack has succeeded against the law of 1806, and it could only be reached by a law; and, when in 1829 to please the Belgian liberals, the government proposed a new general school law, making serious modifications in that of 1806, the Chambers resisted it and the government was compelled to withdraw its project. The code of primary instruction of 1806 has then remained intact, and has experienced neither modification nor addition, nor any new interpretation whatever; it has controlled and still controls the whole primary instruction of Holland; all the provincial regulations conform to it, and the particular regulations of each school are founded upon this law and the provincial regulations. The law with these provincial regulations and the rules of each individual school are so little changed that I found in Holland in 1836 the very same regulations which M. Cuvier had seen in 1811, with the developments and solidity which time alone can give to schools, as to all other institutions."

This system remained unchanged until 1857, when the government introduced into the States general a measure to amend and modify certain of its provisions, and the great question of denominational and non-denominational schools underwent one of the most elaborate and profound discussions which have ever taken place on the subject in any legislature. The non-denominational character of the school system was maintained; but it was modified in some of its practical details.

5.—EPITOME OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM OF HOLLAND.

I will now give an epitome of the Dutch School System as it existed from 1806 to 1857, and then notice the changes which were made in that year.

The law of 1806, which was simple and short, adopted the then existing schools, whether established by the "Society for the Public Good," or by municipal or other public bodies. But it was chiefly characterized by two provisions which had not been introduced into any school law, and which were the foundations of its great success. 1. It established a thorough system for the examination of teachers, so that none but competent teachers could be employed in the schools. 2. It provided a thorough system of inspection for the schools. This, indeed, was the great object of the law and the chief aim of its author; for thirty years after its enactment, and three years after the infirmities of age had compelled him to retire from its administration, the memorable Van den Eude

said to the French Commissioner, M. Cousin, who visited him at Haarlem in 1836, —“*Prenez garde au choix de vos inspecteurs ; ce sont des hommes qu'il faut chercher une lanterne à la main*”—Take care how you choose your inspectors; they are men whom you ought to look for lantern in hand.”

The Kingdom of Holland is divided into provinces, each of which is as large as three or four Counties in Upper Canada ; each province is divided into school districts ; and over each district is appointed a school inspector. Each school district is nearly as large as a Canadian County. The inspectors of the several school districts of a province constitute the Commission for primary instruction in the province. What Baron Cuvier said in his “Report to the French Government on the establishment of Public Instruction in Holland,” in 1811, is still true : “The Government is authorized to grant to each province a certain sum to meet the compensation and the expenses of travel, and meeting of the inspectors. The mode of choosing them is excellent ; they are taken from clergymen or laymen of education, who have signalized themselves by their interest in the education of children, and skill in the local management of schools, from teachers who have distinguished themselves in their vocation ; and, in the large towns, from professors of the Universities and higher grades of schools.” The English School Commissioner Arnold, who visited and reported upon the schools and school system of Holland, in 1860, remarks : “This provincial school commission [of inspectors] met three times a year, and received a report on his district from each inspector who was a member of it. It examined teachers for certificates. It was in communication with the provincial government. Once a year it sent as its deputy one of its members to the Hague, to form with the deputies of other provinces a commission, to discuss and regulate school matters under the immediate direction of the Minister of the Home Department and his Inspector-General. In his own district, by this law, each inspector is supreme ; local municipal school-committees can only be named with his concurrence, and he is the leading member of them all ; no teacher, public or private, can be appointed without his authorization ; and he inspects every school in his district twice a year. These powerful functionaries were to be named by the State, on the presentation for the inspectorships of each province of the assembled commission of inspectors for that province. They were excellently chosen from amongst the laymen and clergymen who had shown an intelligent interest in popular education. Following a practice not rare in Holland, where the public service is esteemed highly honorable, and where the number of persons able and willing to take part in it is greater than in any other country, they give their services nearly gratuitously. They received allowances for their expenses while engaged in the business of inspection, but no salaries. Either they were men of private means, or were exercising at the same time with their inspectorship, some other function which provided them with an income. Their cost to the State was therefore very small. There were at first 56 inspectors, whose travelling allowances together amounted to £1,840 sterling ; and this sum with an inspector-general's salary, and with a small charge for the office and travelling expenses of this functionary, was the whole cost to the State for primary instruction.

Four general regulations accompanied and completed this law of 1806. The provincial and communal administrations were charged to occupy themselves with providing proper means of instruction in their localities, with insuring to the teacher a comfortable subsistence, and with obtaining a regular attendance of children in the schools. "The provincial government fixed the teachers' salary for each province at a rate which made the position of the Dutch schoolmaster superior to that of his class in every other country. Free schools for the poor were provided in all the large towns and in the villages, which taught the poor gratuitously, but imposed a small admission fee on those who could afford to pay it. Ministers of religion and lay authorities combined their efforts to draw children into the schools. The boards which distributed public relief imposed on its recipients the condition that they should send their children to school. The result was a popular education, which, for extent and solidity combined, has probably never been equalled. Even in 1811, in the reduced Holland of the French Empire, M. Cuvier found 4,451 primary schools, with nearly 200,000 scholars, one in ten of the population being at school. In the province of Groningen the Prefect reported, as in 1840 the Administration reported, that in the town of Haarlem there was not a child ten years of age and of sound mind that could not read and write. The position of schoolmasters was most advantageous. Municipalities and parents were alike favorable to them, and held them and their profession in an honor which then, probably, fell to their lot nowhere else. Hardly a village school-master was to be found with a salary of less than £40 a year, in the towns many had from £120 to £160, and even more than that sum; all had besides, a house and garden. The fruits of this comfort and consideration were to be seen, as they are remarkably to be seen even at the present day, in the good manners, the good address, the self-respect without presumption, of the Dutch teachers."

6.—ENGLISH VIEWS ON EDUCATION IN HOLLAND.

Mr. Nicholls.—In 1838, the Poor Law Commissioners of England deputed Mr. George Nicholls to examine and "Report on the condition of the "Laboring Poor in Holland and Belgium." Mr. Nicholls remarks, that "The measures adopted in Holland to promote the education of all classes have apparently resulted from the conviction that the moral and social character of the people, their intelligence, and their capacity for increasing the resources of the country, must, in a great measure, depend upon the manner in which they are trained for the fulfilment of their several duties. A sense of the importance of education pervades the entire community—it is sought for by the poor for their children with an earnestness similar to that observed in the more wealthy classes of other countries; and in Holland the direct interference of government is confined to regulating the mode of instruction by means of an organized system of inspection."—"In the certificate given to every schoolmaster (whether public or private) there is some sort of guarantee that the person to whom the children are sent to learn, is not an ignorant charlatan, professing to teach what he has never learned; and in the next place, it secures to those who devote themselves

to the profession a much higher rate of remuneration than they would receive if, as with us, every broken-down tradesman could open a school when he could do nothing else. This exclusion of absolute incapacity is also a means, and a very powerful one, of raising the character of the profession in popular estimation."—"In Holland there is no profession that ranks higher than that of school-master; and a nobleman would scarcely, if it all, command more respect than is paid to many of those who devote their lives to the instruction of youth. The personal consideration is extended to the assistant teacher or usher."—"The most important branch of administration, as connected with education, is that which relates to school inspection. All who have ever been anxious, either to maintain the efficiency of the school, or to improve its character, will appreciate the importance of the frequent periodical visits of persons having a knowledge of what education is, and who are therefore able to estimate correctly the amount and kind of instruction given. Let a school established by voluntary subscriptions be placed to-day on the best possible footing, if no vigilance be exercised by its founders, and if the master be neither encouraged nor stimulated to exertion by their presence, his position will speedily be converted into a sinecure, and the school will degenerate to the lowest point of utility."

Mr. E. Hickson, Principal of the Mechanics' Institute in Liverpool, in an "Account of the Dutch and German Schools," published in 1840, remarks that "In Holland education is on the whole more faithfully carried out than in most of the German States, and we may add that notwithstanding the numerous Normal Schools of Prussia, (institutions in which Holland although possessing two, is still deficient,) the Dutch school masters are decidedly superior to the Prussian, and the schools of primary instruction consequently in a more efficient state. This superiority we attribute entirely to a better system of inspection. In Prussia the inspectors of schools are neither sufficiently numerous nor their powers sufficiently extensive. In Holland inspection is the basis upon which the whole fabric of popular instruction rests. There can be no judges of the qualifications of teachers equal to those whose daily employment consists in visiting schools and comparing the merits of different plans of instruction. But the power given to the inspector does not end here; by virtue of his office he is a member of every local board, and when vacant situations occurring in schools are to be filled up, a new (competitive) examination is instituted before him into the merits of the different candidates. It is upon his motion that the appointment is made, and upon his report to the higher authorities, a master is suspended or dismissed for misconduct. Through his influence children of more than ordinary capacity in the schools he visits, are transferred, as pupils, to the Normal schools, in order to be trained for masters; and through his active agency all improved plans or methods of instruction are diffused throughout the various institutions of the country."

7.—RELIGIOUS AND MORAL EDUCATION IN HOLLAND.

In respect to religious and moral education in the schools, I may remark, with *Mr. Kay* in his educational tour on the continent, as travelling

Bachelor of the Cambridge University, that "The law proclaims, as the great end of all instruction, the 'exercise of the social and christian virtues.' In this respect it agrees with the law of Prussia and France; but it differs from those countries in the way by which it attempts to attain this end. In France and all the German countries the schools are the auxiliaries, so to speak, of the churches; for, whilst the schools are open to all sects, yet the teacher is a man trained up in the particular doctrines of the majority of his pupils, and required to teach those doctrines during certain hours, the children who differ from him in religious belief being permitted to absent themselves from the religious lessons, on condition that their parents provided elsewhere for their religious instruction. But in Holland the teachers are required to give religious instruction to all the children, and to avoid most carefully touching on any of the grounds of controversy between different sects."

Mr. Nicholls in his Report on the Condition of the Labouring Poor in Holland and Belgium says:—"As respects religion, the population of Holland is divided in about equal proportion into Catholic, Protestants of the Reformed Calvinistic and Lutheran Churches; and the ministers of each are supported by the State. The schools contain without distinction the children of every sect of christians. The religious and moral instruction afforded to the children is taken from the pages of Holy Writ, and the whole course of education is mingled with a frequent reference to the great general evidences of revelation. Biblical history is taught, not as a dry narration of facts, but as a store house of truths calculated to influence the affections, to correct and elevate the manners and to inspire sentiments of devotion and virtue. The great principles and truths of christianity, in which all are agreed, are likewise carefully inculcated; but those points which are the subjects of difference and religious controversy form no part of the instruction for the schools. This department of religious teaching is confided to the ministers of each persuasion, who discharge this portion of their duties out of school; but within the schools the common ground of instruction is faithfully preserved, and they are, consequently, altogether free from the spirit of jealousy or proselytism. We witnessed the exercise of a class of children of notables at Haarlem, (according to the simultaneous method,) respecting the death and resurrection of our Saviour; by a minister of the Lutheran Church. The class contained children of Catholics, Calvinists and other denominations of christians, as well as Lutherans, and all disputable doctrinal points were carefully avoided. The Lutherans are the smallest in number, the Calvinists the largest and the Catholics about midway between the two, but all appear to live together in perfect amity without the slightest distinction in the common intercourse of life; and this circumstance, so extremely interesting in itself, no doubt facilitated the establishment of the general system of education here described, the effects of which are so apparent in the highly moral and intellectual condition of the Dutch people."

After this brief general account of the character and results of the system of primary instruction in Holland, it may not be necessary for me to translate

the law itself, or the four elaborate circulars interpreting and giving instructions for its administration. But as this remarkable system was established when Holland was a pure republic, has survived successive revolutions,—is the original of the best features of the State school systems in America, and still exists in its integrity under the present monarchical government of Holland, I will note more particularly some of the provisions of the law and the regulations in regard to the constitution of local boards, the examination of teachers and the duties of inspectors, and some of the rules of the schools. The law of 1806 itself is entitled “The Law on Primary Instruction in the Batavian Republic,” and consists of twenty-one articles or clauses with several sub-clauses—defining the bodies and officers to whom the administration of primary instruction shall be confided—the description of schools which are to be recognized, and the classes of persons who may be authorized to teach them, together with large and discretionary powers on the part of the “Grand Pensionnaire,” or “Superintendent of the System,” to make such regulations and give such instructions as are necessary for the uniform and efficacious introduction of this law, as well as all other regulations which will tend to the improvement (*au perfectionnement*) of primary instruction in general.” The law, therefore, expresses the fundamental principles and great objects of the system, leaving all the practical details of it to be matters of executive orders and instructions.

§.—PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

The first order or regulation contains thirty articles or sections, with sub-sections,—defines primary instruction and the establishments included under it, both public and private; the descriptions of teachers recognized for them; the control and inspection to which they are subject; the manner in which teachers are appointed to them; and suspended from them in case of misconduct; the conditions on which public aid is granted to them, and the means by which they are to be kept open all the year.

Examination of Teachers.—The second general order contains twenty-six articles, or sections, and several sub-sections, and relates to the examinations of teachers for primary instruction. They are divided into four classes, and the qualifications, and the kinds of schools to teach which each class of teachers is eligible, are defined, and the manner in which they are to be examined. The seventh article of this order says that “In the examinations, the object shall not only be to ascertain the extent of the knowledge of the candidate in the branches which he proposes to teach, but also to ascertain his skill in communicating to others, and especially to children, the knowledge which he professes.” The ninth article prescribes the subjects and modes of examination as follows:—

“1. An exercise in reading different printed and written characters; whether with a good pronunciation, a proper and natural accent, and also with a knowledge of punctuation.

“2. Some words and phrases designedly misspelled shall be proposed to the candidate to ascertain his knowledge of orthography.

"3. To ascertain the extent of his grammatical knowledge of the Dutch language, a sentence shall be dictated, which he shall analyze, and name the parts of speech, and give proofs of his familiarity with declensions and conjugations.

"4. The candidate shall write some lines in large, middle and small hand, and make his own pens.

"5. Some questions in Arithmetic shall be proposed to him, especially in respect to matters of common occurrence, and which are proper to show the experience and dexterity of the candidate in calculations, both in whole numbers and in fractions.

"6. Some questions shall be proposed on the theory of music.

"7. Various questions relative to history, geography, natural philosophy, mathematics, and such other branches as the candidate proposes to teach.

"8. The examination as to the attainments of the candidate having been completed, the examiners shall proceed to the examination of his aptitude for teaching; they shall question him as to the manner of teaching children the alphabet, figures, and the first principles, afterwards reading, writing, arithmetic. They shall then require him to relate some tale or story of history in order to ascertain his degree of talent in presenting things to children with clearness and precision. Care should be taken if opportunity offers, and if it be deemed advisable, to assemble some children of different ages, and different degrees of knowledge, in order to satisfy themselves more fully of his skill in practical teaching.

"9. Finally, the examiners shall propose some questions—questions upon the principles to be followed in rewards and punishments, and also in general on the most proper means not only to develop and cultivate the intellectual faculties of children, but also to train them up to the exercise of Christian virtues."

9.—TEACHERS' CERTIFICATE OF QUALIFICATION.

The subsequent sixteen sections of this circular order, relate to the mode of giving the different classes of certificates to both male and female candidates who have passed successful examinations; the exact manner of designating the attainments and talents of each, the limitation of teachers of the third and fourth classes to schools of the lowest grade; the fees payable by teachers for their licenses to teach: and the gradation of salaries according to different classes of teachers.

Every one who reads the above programme for the examination of teachers must be impressed with its thorough character, and that no one is qualified to examine candidates, according to such a programme, but an educated man who has a knowledge of school teaching. As the examining board in each province was composed entirely of school inspectors who had been selected for their office on account of their practical knowledge as well as zeal in respect to schools, the examinations were thus rendered efficient and stimulating, well adapted to pro-

duce a class of teachers for primary instruction unequalled in any other part of the world. It is on this point of the selection, powers and duties of local inspectors or superintendents, that our Canadian school system is most defective.

10.—REGULATIONS FOR SCHOOL INSPECTORS, AND FOR BOARDS OF INSTRUCTION IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES.

But if the regulations were admirable in regard to the *examination of teachers*, protecting the people in regard to both public and private schools against unworthy and unqualified teachers, the regulations in respect to the *inspection of schools* were no less practical and effective. This is, indeed, the corner-stone, the life, the soul of the Dutch school system, as it must be of any efficient system of public instruction. Too much importance cannot be attached to an active and vigilant superintendence of schools—forming a tribunal of respectful reference for both teachers and trustees, stimulating them in their noble work, suggesting the best methods of experience for its promotion.

Inspectors of Schools.—I have in preceding pages stated the manner of selecting and appointing inspectors, the importance attached to their office, as also some of their duties. The third circular order of government accompanying the school law of 1806, contains 31 articles of “instruction,” with many sub-articles “for the inspectors of schools, and for the Commissions of Instruction in the different departments of the Batavian Republic.” The following extracts from them are suggestive and will show the manner in which the duties of inspection have been provided for in Holland for more than sixty years, making each inspector a sort of Normal school instructor of every teacher under his charge needing his counsels:—

“Art. 1. The inspectors of schools shall take the greatest care possible that the instruction of youth be put upon a uniform footing, improved and rendered of the most general and direct utility; that the teachers are really capable of giving such instruction; that their zeal be encouraged, their merits rewarded, their position be improved; especially that the measures taken or to be taken for elementary instruction be known and executed; that the obstacles which may be encountered be prudently removed, finally, that the amelioration of primary instruction in general be presented to the public as interesting and advantageous. The whole to be done in conformity with the following articles.

“Art. 2. Each inspector shall acquaint himself with the number and situation of the primary schools, as also with the state of primary instruction throughout the whole extent of his district. He shall endeavour to see that besides the necessary number of ordinary schools, there shall also be a sufficient number of schools for children of tender age, organized in the best manner possible, and also schools of industry or labour. Finally, he shall take care that proper instruction in all branches of primary education may be obtained, according to the circumstances and wants of the different Communes.

“Art. 3. He shall apply himself to become acquainted with the persons and talents of the several teachers in his district, and shall make notes of them. He

shall be always accessible to those who may think they need his counsels and explanations in regard to their functions.

"Art. 4. He shall make it his special business to excite and maintain the zeal of the masters; and for that purpose he shall, at appointed times, assemble a certain number of them, either at his own house, or in other parts of his district, and that as often as possible. He shall then confer with them on the important end and attributes of the functions confided to them, and upon the best manner of discharging them faithfully and usefully in behalf of youth.

Inspector's Visits.—"Art. 5. The inspector is bound to visit twice a year all the schools of his district which are subject to his supervision. He is exhorted to repeat his visits at different times, either in case of necessity, or for the general good, and as often as he can without burthening himself too much. He shall visit other schools in his district from time to time, but in concert with the persons who have charge of them, if they are under private inspection.

"Art. 6. In visiting the schools which are under his direct supervision, he shall request the master to teach in his presence the pupils of the different classes, and who are in different stages of progress, in order that he may judge of the manner in which instruction is regulated and given. He shall also note, whether the regulations concerning primary instruction, as also the interior order of the schools, are duly observed and executed; he shall, in fine, attend to whatever he may think of any importance. At the conclusion of his visit, the inspector shall have a private conversation with the master or mistress of the school, upon all that he has remarked during his visit; and according to the exigency of the case, he shall praise, advise, admonish, or censure, according to what he has seen or heard. Each school inspector shall keep notes of the remarks and observations which he shall have made in the course of his visits for use in the manner hereafter provided.

"Art. 8. In all matters concerning the welfare of the schools, in which the school inspectors shall need the assistance or co-operation of the civil power, they shall address themselves to the local departmental, or national administration, according to the nature of the case.

"Art. 9. They shall specially take to heart the improvement of the school rooms; the instruction of the children of the poor, particularly in villages and hamlets; the regulations and improvement of the incomes of teachers; the constant attendance at schools, and keep them open as much as possible during the whole year."

[*Inspectors and the Teachers.*—The following articles of instruction treat of the care with which the inspector should see that none but teachers duly licensed are employed to teach, should interest local parties in behalf of the schools, and see that vacancies be filled up in case of the death, resignation, or removal of teachers, and the manner of filling up vacancies in case of the resignation or death of an inspector, his retirement from office, from other causes; the meeting of the School Commissions three times a year, and the manner of calling their ordinary and special meetings, and the manner of conducting them.]

"Art. 24. At each ordinary meeting of the Commission, each member shall present a written report :

"(1). Of the schools he has visited since the last meeting, the date of visiting them, and the observations he made in regard to the state of the schools under different aspects.

"(2). Of the meetings which he has held with schoolmasters to confer with them touching their duties.

"(3). Of his examination of teachers of the lowest rank, with such particulars as he shall judge important.

"(4). Of the changes and other circumstances which occurred in his district relative to any school or schoolmaster since the last meeting, and especially the vacancy of masterships, the delivery of certificates of qualifications, the nomination or special admission to any rank or class, noting the interesting circumstances connected with them, the appointment of local inspection in small places, the changes which have taken place in local school boards, the inspection of any new primary or industrial school, the admission of any teacher of languages, the drawing up of any rules for the internal order of the school, the introduction of other than the school books contained in the general list into private schools of either of the two classes of schools, the measures taken to regulate and improve the incomes of teachers, the measures adopted to keep open the schools without interruption and secure the regular attendance of pupils, any difficulties which they have encountered, the encouragements or difficulties experienced by teachers, the examination of pupils in schools. The inspector shall indicate the part of his report which he desires to be inserted in the monthly Journal of Education (*Bydragen*).

Inspectors' Reports.—"Art. 25. From these data and other private notes, as also from the written reports of the local school boards, each school inspector shall draw up annually, before the meeting in Easter week, a general report of the state of the schools and of primary instruction throughout his district. If he has failed to visit any of the schools more than once during the preceding year he shall state his reasons for it. He shall also make such suggestions as he may judge worthy of attention for the improvement of primary instruction.

Local Board Reports.—"Art. 26. In order that the school inspectors may not omit in their annual reports anything mentioned in the preceding article, the local school boards or trustees, or their individual members as far as concerns the schools placed under their care, shall draw up in writing, at the latest before the end of February, a report similar to that which is required of inspectors.

Reports of Departments.—"Art. 27. From all these annual reports by the various members of the respective departmental commissions, there shall be prepared by each of them a general and succinct view of the state of the schools and of primary instruction throughout the whole extent of their department. Of this report there shall be made two copies.

Reports to Government.—"Art. 28. Within fifteen days after each ordinary meeting, the Departmental Commissioners shall forward or cause to be forwarded to the Secretary of the Interior :

"(1.) An authentic summary of the proceedings and acts of the meeting, and of the extraordinary meetings which have been held.

"(2.) The original written reports presented by each member.

"(3.) The name and state of persons who have been examined during the sittings of both the ordinary and extraordinary meetings, stating the results of the examinations, and the rank or class of certificate which the persons examined have obtained, in order to publish what may be deemed necessary in the educational periodical, entitled *Bydragen*.

"Art. 29. At the conclusion of the ordinary meeting the week after Easter, each Commission shall forward, or cause to be forwarded within four weeks to the Secretary of the Interior besides the document mentioned in the preceding article.

"(1.) One of the two authentic copies of the annual general summary.

"(2.) The original of the general reports of the different members of the Commissions.

"(3.) A detailed statement, extracted from that of each of the members, of the propositions which each commission desires to submit for deliberation at the next annual general meeting, or which it has resolved to present to the departmental administration.

"Art. 30. A like authentic copy of the general annual summary is to be sent within the same period, by the commission, to the departmental administration. All the other documents shall likewise be sent, if required, to the departmental administration, or to the member of the administration who is specially charged with the care of the primary schools, and of primary instruction. For this purpose, all the original documents, sent to the Secretary of the Interior,—namely, the various reports written by different inspectors, their annual reports, the annual reports of the different local commissions,—shall be returned to the Secretary of the last meeting, at least within two months, by the Department of the Interior, after having made the needful use of them. These documents shall afterwards be deposited among the papers of the respective commissions."

11.—SUPERIOR EXCELLENCE OF THE DUTCH SCHOOL REGULATIONS.

Such were the Governmental instructions prepared and published the 3rd of April, 1806, for the inauguration and execution of the famous primary school law of that year—instructions founded on a profound study of popular school economy, and adapted to interest and include all classes in its administration, to secure well qualified teachers and good schools, carefully superintended, to the obscurest villages and remotest places in the land, while the Government would be thoroughly informed of all its operations, and be enabled by the suggestions of experience and observation from all quarters, to remedy the defects and improve the efficiency of the system from year to year. Thus primary education has become more extensively and thoroughly diffused in Holland than in any other country.

The general rules for primary schools, prepared and published May 6th, 1906, are also remarkable, not only from the period of their adoption, but for their practical character. I will extract the following:—

“(1.) The primary schools shall be open without interruption throughout the year, except during times fixed for holidays.

“(2.) During the whole time devoted to the lessons, the teacher shall be present from the beginning to the end; he shall not occupy himself with any thing except that which relates to the teaching.

“(3.) The teacher shall see that the pupils do not needlessly go out of school, especially that they be quiet and attentive in the school, and out of it that they show themselves peaceable, polite and modest.

“(4.) When the number of the pupils exceeds seventy, measures shall be taken to employ a second master or under-master.

“(5.) The pupils shall be received, as far as possible, only at fixed periods in the course of the year.

“(6.) The pupils shall be distributed or classified into three divisions; each division shall have its own separate place, and shall receive at each sitting the instruction suitable to it.

“(7.) The teacher shall see that pupils are at all times clean in their dress, well washed and combed; and he shall at the same time take the greatest care of everything which may contribute to their health.

“(8.) The schoolrooms shall always be kept in order; and for that purpose they shall be aired during the intervals of the classes, and scrubbed twice a week.

“(9.) There shall be an examination of each school at least once a year. On that occasion, the pupils of the lower classes shall be promoted to the higher classes, and, as far as possible, rewards shall be bestowed upon those who have distinguished themselves by their application and good conduct.

“(10.) When a pupil who has distinguished himself by his progress and conduct, leaves the school, at the end of the course of study, he shall receive a certificate of honour.”

12.—CO-OPERATION OF RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS WITH THE SYSTEM.

But that which has pre-eminently characterized the Dutch system of primary instruction, is the independence of the primary schools of any religious persuasion, and yet the co-operation of all religious persuasions in the work of primary instruction. It has stood the test of more than half a century, and held its ground in the presence of differing and opposing systems on this point in France, Germany and even England; and the Christian intelligence, morals and virtues of the Dutch people in comparison with those of any other people in Europe, are the best vindication of their primary school system, and of the adoption of this feature of it in Upper Canada. In previous pages it has been shown that the teachers of the primary schools in Holland do not teach the peculiar tenets or doctrines of any religious persuasion, but only the doctrines

common to all religious persuasions, and Christian morals and virtues as taught by Scripture biography and precept; that the denominationally dogmatic or doctrinal part of religious instruction was left to the several religious denominations. On the passing of the school law for the organization of the school system, in 1806, the Government addressed a circular to the Protestant Synods and the Roman Catholic Prelates on the subject, and received answers from them. These papers are of practical, as well as of historical, interest to us in Upper Canada; and they have not, as far as I know, yet appeared in the English language. I will give a translation of some of them as follows:—

“The Secretary of State for the Interior:

“To all Synods of the Reformed Holland and Walloon Churches, Consistories of the Lutheran, Remonstrant, Menonite Communion, and Prelates of the Roman Catholic Communion:

“GENTLEMEN,—The high importance which the Government earnestly attaches to primary instruction in this Republic, cannot have escaped your attention. No one of its powers and duties is more attractive. May the improved scholastic institutions, under the Divine benediction, bear the fruits which they appear to promise! They are opposed to the progress of immorality in our country; and the pure principles of Christian and social virtues will by this means be implanted and cultivated in the hearts of future generations. At least it cannot be doubted that this is the dearest wish of the Government, and the first object which it proposes in the improvement of the primary schools. The object of the schools is not then merely to impart useful knowledge, but they are established as an energetic auxiliary for the improvement of morals.

“It is upon the same principle that the Government hopes that you will support and make known its intentions in regard to schools, and invites you, by the present circular, to employ your powerful influence for that purpose.

“Especially is there one part of the instruction of youth for which the Government claims your co-operation; namely, the teaching of the dogmatic tenets of the various communions.

“You cannot be ignorant that throughout the whole extent of our country, there has existed scarcely a school or teacher that could give proper religious instruction. That religious instruction in the schools was limited to committing to memory and causing to recite the questions and answers of some Catechisms. There was no ground, for various reasons, to expect more of the teacher. And though the Government flatters itself that the new school institutions will lead to this result, that there will gradually be introduced into the schools a regular organization of instruction in the Christian religion in that which relates to the historical and moral part of it; yet, in the actual state of things, it would not be right to impose upon teachers the obligation to teach the doctrinal tenets of particular communions.

“If the Government has thought for these reasons that it was its duty to separate entirely denominational doctrine from the teaching of the school, it is not the less impressed with the importance of children receiving that instruc-

tion. Wherefore, having full confidence in your anxious desire to promote these salutary views for the welfare of youth, the Government has judged that it could not adopt a more effective measure than to address the various ecclesiastical communions of this republic, and to invite you specially by the present circular to take entirely upon yourselves the religious instruction of your youth, either by regular lessons on the catechism or otherwise. I shall be happy to be informed of the measures which you may take on this subject.

"As you will doubtless judge it desirable to communicate the contents of the present circular to the ministers of the parishes within your jurisdiction, I request you to let me know the number of copies of the present circular required for that purpose; with which I commend you to the protection of the Most High."

(Signed.)

HEND. VAN STRALEN.

Nothing could exceed the cordiality with which the several Protestant Synods and Consistories and the Roman Catholic Prelates responded to the sentiments and objects of this circular; their wish and determination to co-operate with the Government as desired by its circular, of which they respectively requested a larger or smaller number of copies to make known to all church officers and congregations under their oversight, the christian and patriotic intentions of the Government. The Synod of the Reformed Communion of Holland replies by the adoption of five resolutions, expressing in detail the manner in which it proposes to give effect to the requests and recommendations of the Government circular. The following first two of these resolutions indicate the spirit of the whole:—

"1. That the Synod has remarked with sincere joy this mark of the confidence of the Government in the zeal and good dispositions of the Ministers of the Reformed religion. Honoured by this confidence it gives Your Excellency the assurance that the ministers of its jurisdiction have ceaselessly endeavoured to render themselves worthy of it, both by giving religious instruction and by other indefatigable labours, (in some very difficult circumstances,) in which they will continue with the same zeal—flattering themselves that the intentions of the Government so clearly shown, and of which the Synod has never doubted, will entirely remove the prejudice against the new scholastic institutions as having a tendency to suppress the teaching of religious doctrine, and to replace it by maxims and exhortations purely moral. The Synod will, therefore, earnestly exhort the ministers within its jurisdiction to continue as they have done, to recommend both in their public sermons and in their pastoral visits, and on all occasions, diligent attendance at the schools.

"2. That the circular letter received shall be brought to the knowledge of the various classes, and through them to the individual churches, in order that the consistories may give official information to the teachers of their respective communes, adding that the Synod has confidence that the teachers will promote to the utmost of their power the salutary intentions of the Government, by diligently exhorting the pupils and parents to the proper use of the lessons of

the catechism with the ministers of the communion to which they belong ; and that they will undertake the slight labour of sending to the consistory a list which they will fill up from time to time—for example, every three months—containing the names of the children of the Reformed Communion that attend their school, with an indication of the place of their residence.”

The Synods of the several Reform Communions returned substantially the same reply, which the Minister of the Interior gratefully acknowledged, desiring—

“That it should be made known to the respective Synods, the satisfaction of the Government on account of their benevolent and unanimous good wishes concerning the prosperity of the schools, and for their co-operation in that which regards specially the dogmatic part of religion. These various measures present, in a daily enlarging perspective, the happy results of the beneficent intentions of the government for youth, and create a brilliant hope which, thanks to their energetic support, the scholastic institutions may henceforth expect on the part of the reformed and other communions. The work of improvement commenced in the schools will become, under the Divine blessing, a powerful auxiliary for the advancement of moral and religious sentiments in our country, formerly so eminent and commendable in this respect ; a sacred end towards which the Government will not cease to march, by availing itself of the suggestions contained in the answers to the circular mentioned. At the same time, the Government gives its assent to the measures taken by the Synods and announced in their respective letters, in relation to the regular instruction of all the scholars, belonging to the reformed communion, in the dogmatic part of religion.

“The Government hereby authorizes the respective members of the boards of instruction in the departments, to direct all the masters, both public and private, as also mistresses, to transmit to the respective consistories, or other ecclesiastical persons of their commune, at their request, a list of the names and, in the town, of the residences of their pupils, appertaining to the religious communion in the name of which the request is made ; and to fill up this list every six months, and also to watch with care that their pupils punctually attend the religious instruction which shall be given them by the respective ministers of their communions.”

The following are the admirable answers of the Roman Catholic Archbishops to the circular of the Minister of the Interior :

“**SIR,**—In answer to your honoured letter of the 30th May, which I have received the 10th instant, I have the honour to inform Your Excellency as follows :—

“Seeing that good school institutions cannot but produce the most desirable results in training youth not only to social, but also to religious virtues, it is indubitable that all the ministers of the different religious communions in general, but those of the Roman Catholic communion in particular, should attach the highest interest to the measures which the government has taken, or will take in

that respect; and that they should make it a duty to co-operate with it on their part to the utmost of their power.

"The Catholic pastors will willingly take upon themselves the instruction of their youth in the dogmas of their religion, and will give lessons of the Catechism in the Churches and on the days and at the hours which shall be judged the most appropriate in the circumstances of the respective parishes;—a subject on which I will enter into communication with the Curés that are subordinate to me.

"I take the liberty, on this occasion, to make one observation to Your Excellency. We cannot, especially in rural Communes, choose any other days than Sunday to give with regularity the instruction in question to the children of laborers and artisans; but an abuse, which is becoming more and more inveterate, causes a great obstacle to all the efforts of pastors: public labour on the Lord's day is spreading more and more among all classes of the people. Artisans of every kind labour, often in public, the whole Sunday; and when they are spoken to respecting it, they excuse themselves by saying that their refusal would cause the loss of their employers and customers who insist upon it. Others follow this example, and thus numbers of children are deprived of religious instruction.

"Now, seeing that in all Christian communions, Sunday is consecrated to instruction and the exercise of religion, and that, certainly, ministers have need of this day to instruct the youth, especially those of the lower classes of the people; it is to be desired that, on its part, the Government would adopt some efficacious measures to facilitate the functions of ministers in that regard, and for extirpating the abuse I have just signalized. I pray you, sir, as far as you can, to expose this thing to the paternal attention of the Government, in order that it may provide a remedy for it.

"I have the honor to be, with all possible consideration, Sir,

"Your Excellency's very humble servant,

(Signed) "J. VAN ENGELEN, Archbishop.

"Mausen, 13th June, 1806."

"Sir,—The letter of Your Excellency of the 30th May reached me the 10th of this month.

"I confess that I have read the contents of it with delight; and I flatter myself that I and the several curés of this province will respond with all our power to the salutary views of the Batavian Government, and that we will show that we are not unworthy of its confidence.

"In order that concord, friendship and charity may reign among the various Communions, it is necessary, in my opinion, that the teachers should abstain from teaching the dogmas of those various Communions. I except only the case in which the teacher who, besides having acknowledged probity and capacity, has only pupils of a single Communion. Without being taught, children learn too soon that they differ in religion; one reproaches another, and

many teachers take no pains to prevent it. It is at first, indeed, only childishness; but nevertheless children grow, and alienation increases more and more; bitterness fixes itself in the heart, and all their religion is often only false zeal which a true religious spirit and Christian charity reprove and abhor.

"To attain the salutary end which the Government proposes, and for which it claims our earnest co-operation, it is with children that it is proper to commence; and though in our church, the teaching of the dogma is not imposed, yet on account of the exhortations of the Government which attaches so high importance to the well-being of youth, we will with still greater ardour labour to fulfil our duties. We will endeavour thus to give a mark of our submission, of our esteem and respect; and, at the same time, we will pray God to deign to bless the efforts which the Government is making for the general happiness."

"I have the honor to be, with all dutiful respect, Sir,

"Your Excellency's very humble servant,

(Signed) "H. DE HAAS, Archbishop of Friesland.

"Sneek, 13th June, 1806."

13.—MODIFICATIONS OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM FROM 1806 TO 1848.

It will have been seen from the preceding pages how far the Dutch School System, as a popular, national, effective system, was prior to and in advance of any other School System in Europe; and, indeed, that the best features of the American School Systems have been borrowed from Holland. From 1806 to 1848 two modifications had taken place in the Dutch School System,—the first, the establishment of Normal-Schools in 1816 as an integral part of the system. Though there were but two Normal Schools, which were not adequate to train all the teachers of the primary schools; yet, as in Upper Canada, they trained a sufficient number of teachers to give a tone and character to the elementary teaching generally, and especially in connexion with the admirable system of inspection—the inspectors being acquainted with the methods of teaching in the Normal Schools, as well as with the various methods then being newly developed in Switzerland and in some German States, and making their visits to the schools a means of improving teachers as well as of otherwise promoting the efficiency of the schools. The second change or modification took place in the towns where, from the better management, tuition and inspection, the public schools for the poor (as they were first intended) became superior to the private schools where the children of the middle class were taught. To enter the public schools a certificate of indigence was required, which excluded the children of the middle classes from them. There was, therefore, danger lest the children of the poor would be better educated than the children of the middle classes, and it was claimed that the State should provide for the proper education of these classes as well as for the poor, since the middle classes were the largest tax contributors in support of the primary schools. To avert the threatened social danger arising from the very success of primary schools, and to

meet so reasonable a demand on the part of the middle classes, public *intermediate French and Classical Schools* were engrafted upon the National School System. The intermediate schools (*Tusschen-Schoolen*) were established in towns where, by paying a fee from six to ten cents a week, the children of the middle classes could obtain an education invested with a public character and protected by public guarantees. Above these intermediate Common Schools were established French schools (*Franshen-Schoolen*) where a still higher education, including English, French and other modern languages, was given for a higher fee. And above the French school was established the Latin or Classical School. The system of primary instruction in Holland became therefore gradually enlarged so as to include higher common and classical schools.

14.—CHANGES IN THE SCHOOL SYSTEM IN 1848.

Such was the state of the Public School System in Holland in 1848, when the revolutionary spirit, which first broke out in France, shook the thrones and modified the constitutions and governments of most of the countries of Europe. The old Constitution of Holland was written down and a new one was established, and this led to certain modifications which, after much agitation and elaborate discussion in the States General, were adopted in 1857.

The constitution of 1848 proclaimed what is called "liberty of instruction"—a phrase hardly known in Canada, but well understood in Europe. By the law of 1806 in Holland, as by the law in France and Prussia at the present time, no private school can be established without permission of the Municipal authorities, and no person can teach a private school without a two-fold certificate—a general certificate of qualifications for teaching certain subjects specified, and then a special certificate permitting the opening and teaching a private school in a particular place. It was contended that this latter certificate was an undue interference with the liberty of the citizen; and therefore while the general certificate of qualification was still to be required of private as of public teachers, the Constitution of Holland in 1848 proclaimed unlimited liberty of establishing private schools.

It was contended that the teachers, as agents of national interests, and in a certain sense national officers, were not sufficiently independent of the local boards or municipalities for the amount of their salaries, though as a whole they were better supported than the primary teachers of any other country; that in many instances their salaries were insufficient; and therefore a law should be passed fixing the minimum of the teacher's salary, below which local parsimony could not reduce it.

It was also said that the law of 1806 had not, with sufficient strictness, defined the obligation of communes to provide schools, and that, in consequence, popular education languished or was neglected in some places. Provision was made to remedy this alleged defect.

15.—THE RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS AND THE DUTCH SYSTEM.

By the new constitution of 1848, all religious denominations were placed on a footing of perfect equality. Protestantism lost its legal ascendancy, and the Roman Catholics began immediately, in the assertion of their equal rights, to claim the literal observance of the spirit of the law of 1806. They did not ask for Separate Schools, but they demanded the exclusion of all religious instruction from the public schools. They contended that the word *Christian* in the law of 1806 had become practically only another word for *Protestant*; that the word *Christian* should if possible, be erased from the law, as partizans in a neutral school were sure to take sectarian advantage of it; that, even if the word remained, the law clearly proscribed all dogmatic teaching, and limited the Christianity to be taught to morality only; that they should forbid the teachers giving any dogmatic religious instruction whatever, and banish from the school the *Bible*, which contains dogma as well as moral precepts.

Every effort seems to have been made on the part of the school authorities to satisfy and conciliate the Roman Catholics; religious instruction in many of the schools was reduced to such a minimum and so emasculated of all life and definiteness, and in some schools discontinued altogether, that the high Protestants began to demand Separate Schools—declaring that the School law of 1806 was vicious in principle—that the public schools which this law had founded were “Godless schools,” and “centres of irreligion and immorality;” and they demanded denominational schools, as existing so largely in France and Prussia. When, therefore, the Government introduced a measure to make the modifications necessitated by the constitution of 1848, the Chambers had to re-open afresh or condemn the non-denominational, or neutral principle of the school law of 1806; and in no parliamentary assembly was the question ever more temperately, earnestly and profoundly discussed. I give a brief statement of the parties on either side of this great discussion and its results, from the report of Mr. Arnold, the English Educational Commissioner to Holland, France, and Switzerland in 1860. Mr. Arnold says:—

“Against the neutral school the high Protestant party stood alone; but its strength, though unaided, was great. This party is at the same time the great conservative party of Holland; it was strong by its wealth, by its respectability, by its long preponderance, by the avowed favour of the King. It was strongest of all perhaps, by the character of its leader, M. Groen Van Prensterer, a man of deep religious convictions, of fervent eloquence, and of pure and noble character. As a pamphleteer and as an orator, M. Groen Van Prensterer attacked the neutral school with equal power. ‘No education without religion!’ he exclaimed, ‘and no religion except in connection with some actual religious communion! else you fall into a vague deism, which is but the first step towards atheism and immorality.’

“If the opponents of the non-denominational school were one, its supporters were many. First of all stood the Roman Catholics; insisting, as in States

where they are not in power they always insist, that the State which cannot be of their own religion shall be of no religion at all ; that it shall be perfectly neutral between the various sects, that no sect, at any rate, shall have the benefit of that State connection which here it cannot itself obtain, but which, when it can obtain it, it has never refused. Next came the Jews and dissenters ; accustomed to use the public schools, desiring to make them even more neutral rather than less neutral, apprehensive that of public schools, allotted separately to denominations, their own share might be small. Next came an important section of the Protestant party, the Protestants of the new school, as they are called, who have of late years made much progress, and whose stronghold is in the University of Groningen ; who take their theology from the German rationalists, and, while they declare themselves sincerely Christian, incline in their own words ' to consider Christianity rather by its moral side and its civilizing effect, than by its dogmatic side and its regenerating effect.' For these persons, the general character of the religious teaching of the Dutch schools under the law of 1806, the ' Christianity common to all sects' taught in them, was precisely what they desired. Finally, the neutral schools were upheld by the whole liberal party, bent in Holland, as elsewhere, to apply on every possible occasion their favourite principle of the radical separation of Church and State, but to exclude religion altogether from schools which belong to the State, because with religion, they said, the State ought to have no concern whatever."

"The party which really triumphed was that of the Protestants of the New School. They owed this triumph less to their own numbers and ability than to the conformity of their views with the language of the legislation of 1806. That legislation was dear, and justly dear, to the people of Holland ; a school system had grown up under it of which they might well be proud, and they had not generally experienced any serious inconvenience from it. The new law, therefore, while it forbade more distinctly than the old law the school master to take part in dogmatic religious teaching, while it expressly abandoned religious instruction to the ministers of the different religious communions, while it abstained from proclaiming, like the old law, a desire that the dogmatic religious teaching of the young, though not given in the public school, might yet not be neglected,—nevertheless still used, like the old law, the word *christian*. It still declared that the object of primary education was ' to develop the reason of the young, and to train them to the exercise of all *christian* and social virtues.' This retention of the word *christian* gave great offence to many members of the majority. It gave offence to the liberals, ' because,' they said, ' this word was in evident opposition with the purely lay character of the State, which as such has no religion.' Yet the liberals accepted the new law as a compromise, and because, after all, it still repelled the introduction of the denominational school. But the Catholics were less pliant. To the last they insisted on excluding the word *christian*, because in practice, they said, this word signified *Protestant*, and most of them voted against the law because this word was retained. The law passed, however, and by a large majority. Popular instruction in Holland is, therefore, still *christian*. But it is *christian* in a sense so large, so wide, from

which everything distinctive and dogmatic is so rigorously excluded, that it might as well perhaps have rested satisfied with calling itself moral."

Thus the neutral or non-denominational character of the public school system was maintained. But though the law of 1857 is substantially the same as that of 1806 in regard to religious teaching in the schools; yet as the question had been raised, and the letter of the law excluding all distinctive religious (or denominational) teaching was strictly enforced, the "Orthodox Protestants" (so called) are greatly dissatisfied, and there is an increased demand for private schools, especially in the towns, where the desired religious instruction is given. It is yet uncertain whether, under such a pressure and the well-known views of the King, the Holland school system may not undergo some modification in this respect, and be made more or less denominational.

16.—CHANGES MADE IN THE DUTCH SYSTEM IN 1857.

In the mean time, the following are the principal changes made by the law of 1857, as stated by Mr. Arnold:

"1. The certificates of morality and capacity are still demanded of every teacher, public or private: but the special authorization of the municipality, formerly necessary for every private teacher before he could open school, and not granted except with the district-inspector's sanction, is demanded no longer. This relaxation makes the establishment of private schools more easy. The programme of primary instruction, and that of the certificate-examination of teachers, remain much the same as they were under the law of 1806. Primary instruction, strictly so called, is pronounced by the law of 1857 to comprehend reading, writing, arithmetic, the elements of geometry, of Dutch grammar, of geography, of history, of the natural sciences, and singing. This is a much more extensive programme than the corresponding programme of France or Belgium. The certificate examination is proportionately fuller also.

"2. The new law expressly prescribes that primary schools, in each commune, shall be at the commune's charge. The law of 1806 had contained no positive prescription on this point. The schools are to be in sufficient number, and the States' deputies and the supreme government have the right of judging whether in any commune they are in sufficient number or not. School-fees are to be exacted of those who can afford to pay them, but not of 'children whose families are receiving public relief, or, though not receiving public relief, are unable to pay for their schooling.' If the charge of its schools is too heavy for a commune, the province and the State aid it by a grant, of which each contributes half. The exact amount of charge to be supported by a commune before it can receive aid, is not fixed by the Dutch law; neither is a machinery established for compelling the commune and the province to raise the school-funds required of them. In both these respects the French law is superior.

"3. But in the weakest point of the French law, in the establishment of a *minimum* for the teachers' salaries, the Dutch law is commendably liberal. The *minimum* of a schoolmaster's fixed salary, placed at £8 a year by the Belgian

and by the French law, the Dutch law places at nearly 224.* I need not remind the reader that the sum actually received by a schoolmaster in Holland is much greater. An under-master's salary is fixed at a minimum of 200 florins; one half of the salary fixed for headmaster.

"4. Under the law of 1857 the public schoolmaster is still appointed by competitive examination. The district inspector retains his influence over this examination. After it has taken place, he and a select body of the municipality draw up a list of from three to six names, those of the candidates who have acquitted themselves best. From this list the entire body of the communal council makes its selection. The communal council may also dismiss the teacher, but it must first obtain the concurrence of the inspector. If the communal council refuses to pronounce a dismissal which the inspector thinks advisable the States' deputies of the province may pronounce it upon the representation of this functionary.

"5. The law fixes the legal staff of teachers to be allowed to public schools. When the number of scholars exceeds 70, the master is to have the aid of a pupil teacher; when it exceeds 100, of an under-master; when it exceeds 150, of an undermaster and pupil teacher; for every 50 scholars above the last number he is allowed another pupil teacher; for every 100 scholars another undermaster. The head master receives two guineas a year for each pupil teacher.

"6. The new legislation organized inspection somewhat differently from the law of 1806. It retained the local school commissions and the district inspectors; but at the head of the inspection of each district it placed a salaried provincial inspector. It directed that these provincial inspectors should be assembled once a year, under the presidency of the Minister for the Home Department, to deliberate on the general interests of primary instruction. The Minister for the Home Department, assisted by a Refrendary, is the supreme authority for the government of education. Between the provincial inspectors and the Minister the law of 1857 has omitted to place inspectors-general. M. de Laveleye, in general the warm admirer of the Dutch School legislation, considers this omission most unfortunate.

"7. The 16th article of the law declares that children are to be admitted into the communal school without distinction of creed. For the much-debated 23rd article the wording finally adopted was as follows:—

"Primary instruction, while it imparts the information necessary, is to tend to develop the reason of the young, and to train them to the exercise of all christian and social virtues.

"The teacher shall abstain from teaching, doing, or permitting anything contrary to the respect due to the convictions of dissenters.

"Religious instruction is left to the different religious communions. The school-room may be put at their disposal for that purpose, for the benefit of children attending the school, out of school hours."

*400 florins.

17.—PRESENT CONDITION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN HOLLAND.

"Holland has at present a population of 3,298,137 inhabitants. For her eleven Provinces she has 11 provincial inspectors and 92 district inspectors. In 1857 her public primary schools were 2,475 in number, with a staff of 2,409 principal masters, 1,537 under-masters, 642 pupil-teachers, 134 school mistresses and assistants. In the day and evening schools there were, on the 15th of January of that year, 322,767 scholars. Of these schools 197 were, in 1857, inspected three times, 618 twice, 1053 once. In 317 of them the instruction is reported as very good, in 1,236 as good, in 367 as middling, in 55 as bad. There were, besides, 944 private schools giving instruction to 83,562 scholars. There were 784 infant schools, receiving 49,373 young children. Boarding schools, Sunday schools and work-schools with the pupils attending them are not included in the totals above given.

"The proportion of scholars to the population, not yet so satisfactory as in 1848, was nevertheless in 1857 more satisfactory than in 1854; in January of the latter year, but 1 in every 9.35 inhabitants was in school; in the same month of 1857, 1 in every 8.11 inhabitants. But, in truth, the suffering state of popular education in Holland would be a flourishing state in most other countries. In the debates of 1857, one of the speakers, who complained that popular education in Holland was going back, cited, in proof of the justice of his complaint, returns showing the state of instruction of the conscripts of South Holland in 1856. In this least favoured province, out of 6,086 young men drawn for the army, 669 could not read or write. Fortunate country, where such an extent of ignorance is matter of complaint! In the neighbouring country of Belgium in the same year, out of 6,617 conscripts in the province of Brabant, 2,254 could not read or write; out of 5,910 conscripts in the province of West Flanders, 2,088 were in the same condition; out of 7,192 in East Flanders 3,153. And while in East Flanders but 1,820 conscripts out of 7,192 could read, write, and cipher correctly, in South Holland, in the worst educated of the Dutch provinces, no less than 5,268 out of 6,086 possessed this degree of acquirement.

"Such, in Holland, is the present excellent situation of primary instruction. In Prussia it may be even somewhat more widely diffused; but nowhere, probably, has it such thorough soundness and solidity. It is impossible to regard it without admiration. I do not think we can hope, in England, for municipalities which, like the Dutch municipalities, can in the main safely be trusted to provide and watch over schools; for a population which, like the Dutch population, can in the main safely be trusted to come to school regularly; for a Government which has only to give good advice and good suggestions to be promptly obeyed.

"Even the Government of Holland, however, has regulated popular education by law; even the school-loving people of Holland, so well taught, so sober-minded, so reasonable, is not abandoned in the matter of its education to its own caprices. The State in Holland, where education is prized by the masses,

no more leaves education to itself, than the State in France, where it is little valued by them. It is the same in the other country of which I have described the school system—in Switzerland. Here and there we may have found, indeed, school-rules in some respects injudicious, in some respects extravagant; but everywhere we have found law, everywhere State regulation. English readers will judge for themselves, whether there is anything which makes the State, in England, unfit to be trusted with such regulation; whether there is anything which makes the people in England unfit to be subjected to it." [Mr. Arnold's Report, 1860.]

18.—DUTCH AND UPPER CANADIAN SYSTEM COMPARED.

In conclusion, I may remark, that I have been more minute in this brief account of the Dutch school system, because there are so many features of it common to our Upper Canadian school system, and because the chief religious elements of society in Holland and Ontario resemble each other in several respects; because the Dutch school system, with many disadvantages of soil and climate, has placed Holland at the head of the educating countries of Europe, and because there is much in that system suggestive of practical improvements in the school system of our own Province.

IV.—PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN SWITZERLAND.

1.—SIZE AND DIVISIONS OF SWITZERLAND.

This Alpine country, one-fifth less in extent than Nova Scotia, consisting of 22 cantons (three divided) forming 25 republics, formed into one confederacy, having no seaport, yet carrying on maritime trade not only with France, Germany and Italy, but also with England and America, is a curiosity in history, a study for the statesman and educationist. It may suggest to the people of Canada how a small inland, cold and mountainous country, may be an independent, a free, a prosperous, an educating country, even in the presence of powerful States. All its civil affairs are administered with remarkable economy, while its schools and colleges are far more numerous than those of any other country in proportion to the population.

In square miles, Switzerland is about one-twelfth the size of Ontario, though its population is more than that of our Province. Its Cantons are less in extent, though more populous, than our Counties. Formerly its cantonal

governments were mere oligarchies; the patrician burghers of the towns were despots, and the mass of the people little better than slaves. But since 1830 the true principles of civil freedom have become practically predominant. The system of popular education in Switzerland, like that of France, dates from 1838, and is therefore scarcely twenty years older than that of Ontario. What has been done, and is doing in Switzerland, may surely be done in Ontario.

2.—EDUCATION IN THE SWISS CANTONS.

Some of the Cantons of Switzerland are French, others are German, others again are Italian. Each Canton has its own system of public instruction; is divided into communes, as our townships are divided into school sections; but it would answer no practical purpose for me to give an account of education in each. I will give a summary statement of the educational institutions in some of the principal Cantons, and then note the features of the educational systems common to them all, with some of the particulars wherein they differ from each other.

1. *Geneva*, though one of the smallest of the Swiss Cantons, with a population of only 66,000—little more than that of the County of York—is one of the most important by its manufactures and territorial riches, and the most celebrated by the political and religious events of which it has been the theatre. The City of Geneva, the birth-place and abode of so many distinguished men, has its University, founded by Calvin in 1559, a Classical College, a School of Arts and Manufactures, a Public Library, an Observatory, an Industrial School, an Industrial College, three Secondary Schools, a School for Deaf-Mutes, and several learned Societies, besides Primary Schools. After the revolution of 1846, the schools of the City and Canton were declared *free*. In 1848, there were 55 schools with 3,900 pupils; in 1859, there were 75 schools and 113 teachers, 5,110 pupils—a school for every 68 children, a teacher for every 45 children—a school to every 880 inhabitants. On account of complaints and violent agitations, the whole system was reorganized in 1864, and was placed wholly under the general control of the Council of State, and the management and oversight of the Municipal Council, Communal committees, and Cantonal inspectors. Salaries of teachers from 1,000 1,400 francs (\$200 to \$280), besides a "good casual" paid by the State.

2. *Vaud*, including its capital Lausanne (where Gibbon wrote his *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*) has a population of 206,000 inhabitants; 1 University Academy; 1 Cantonal School (superior); 2 Normal Schools, and 1 Model School; 1 School for deaf mutes; 1 School of Gymnastics; 1 Institute for Orphans; 754 Primary Schools, with 32,000 pupils—a school for every 44 children, and to every 273 inhabitants. Contributions by the Canton or State for School purposes 46,666 francs (\$9,333); by the Communes or School sections 298,377 francs (\$59,677); Salaries in the towns from 600 to 1,000 (\$120 to \$200); in the communes one half the salaries less than 522 francs (\$104).

3. *Neuchâtel*, with a population of 83,103 inhabitants has 1 Theological University; 1 Superior Gymnasium or College; 1 Superior School for Girls; 3

Industrial Colleges; 286 Elementary Schools—one school to every 315 inhabitants. Appropriation from the Canton or State for primary instruction, 251,329 francs (\$50,266), of which 64,690 francs (\$12,940) were for pensions. Contributions from Communes, 69,595 francs (\$13,919); School fees 56,567 francs (\$11,318); other sources, 19,750 francs (\$3,950). Salaries of teachers (male and female), from 1,000 to 2,000 francs (\$200 to \$400). It will be seen that the salaries of teachers are nearly twice as large in Neuchâtel as in the neighbouring, more wealthy, and larger Canton of Vaud, where there are two Normal Schools. The consequence is that Neuchâtel has drawn away most of the best teachers, including the greater part of the Normal School teachers, from the Canton of Vaud. M. Baudouin, the French School Commissioner to Switzerland in 1865, remarks:—"Throughout the whole Canton of Neuchâtel education is compulsory from 6 to 16 years of age, and the law for the attendance at the school is strictly observed." Mr. Arnold, the English School Commissioner to Switzerland in 1860, observes:—"The industrious and thriving Canton of Neuchâtel, which has redoubled its activity since its separation from Prussia, has lately bestowed zealous care upon its primary instruction, and is at present, of all the French Cantons, that in which it most flourishes."

4. *Fribourg*.—Population, 105, 970; Schools, 288, 1 School to every 347 inhabitants; average salaries of teachers, 600 francs (\$120); appropriation by the State, 25,000 francs (\$5,000); Communes pay the salaries of teachers. The only other of the five French Cantons of Switzerland, is the Valais—the poverty of whose inhabitants renders their schools very inferior to those of the other French Cantons. I will now give a synopsis of the schools in three or four of the 16 German Cantons.

5. *Argovia* (Aargau), whose population is 199,852, possesses 1 Cantonal School, 1 Normal school, 1 School of Rural Economy, 1 Superior school for Girls, 2 Free Schools for the Poor (one for boys and the other for girls), 9 Schools for Deaf Mutes, 17 District Superior or Classical Schools, 286 Schools of Labour for Girls, 504 Primary Schools. The State appropriates 100,000 francs (\$20,000), and the Communes pay 270,000 francs (\$54,000). Each commune has at least one school. A special board is appointed to take charge of the Cantonal School, and another board has charge of the Normal School. Each district has its Council of Instruction; and inspectors visit the public schools. The salaries of teachers vary from 620 to 1,860 francs (\$124 to \$372), besides a house and garden.

6. *Zurich*.—The Canton of Zurich contains a population of 239,000—mostly Protestants and Germans. It possesses 1 University, 1 Polytechnic School, 1 Cantonal School, 1 Normal School, 1 Institute for Deaf Mutes, 66 Secondary or Classical Schools, 514 Primary Schools. The public schools are divided into Communal, Cantonal and Federal schools. The Infant and Primary Schools are Communal Schools, established and supported by the Communes, and managed by a board of trustees elected by ballot in each commune. The

Secondary Schools (Gymnasiums and real or practical schools) are Cantonal Schools, created and endowed by the Canton, and managed by a board, the members of which are elected by the inhabitants of the Canton at large. The Polytechnic School and University are *Federal* Institutions, to the foundation of which the entire Swiss Confederacy has contributed. The City of Zurich, which solicited and obtained the honour of having within its walls the two Superior Schools of the Confederation, engaged to keep the buildings in repair and provide them with all necessary furniture; but the schools are administered by a board or commission composed of distinguished men selected from all the Cantons.

Of the 514 primary schools, 28 are for girls; 25 are for boys; and 461 are mixed schools for boys and girls.

All the children of the canton from the age of 6 to 16 inclusive, are required to attend the public school, or, with the permission of the local board, to receive corresponding instruction at home.

Primary instruction includes six divisions, and continues six years. Then instruction in what is called school of improvement, (attendance half time) includes three classes, and continues three years.

The legal minimum of a teacher's salary is 520 francs (\$104), to which is added the sum of 50 francs (\$10.)—the estimated half of the school fees, the other half going into the public treasury as part of a reserve fund for the pensions of worn-out teachers. There is also added to the teacher's allowance 300 francs, as compensation for house, fuel and garden, where they are not provided. The minimum of a teacher's salary is, therefore, 950 francs. The legal maximum of salaries is 1,330 francs (\$266) which the inhabitants in each commune can increase to 2,000 francs (\$400)."

The French school commissioner remarks—"The smallest villages have a school house, with a residence and garden for the teacher. The greater part of the schoolhouses are pretty, spacious, well lighted and pleasantly situated."

In this canton there are 320 Schools of Labour, including 8,590 pupils, superintended by 334 mistresses, whose salaries vary from 500 to 1,200 francs (\$100 to \$240.)

There are also 57 Secondary, or classical and high schools, with 67 professors, of whom 57 are resident—2,200 pupils—1,594 boys, and 606 girls.

Public instruction in this canton is placed under the authority of a Director General, who is expert in all matters relating to schools and education. He is assisted by a Council of Education, composed of six members, four of whom are elected by the Grand Council of the Canton, and two by the School Synods and hold office for four years. The Council prepares school laws, and oversees the execution of them. It appoints by ballot each of the boards which have charge respectively of the Gymnasium, the Normal School, and the Real School.

The whole Canton is divided into school districts, or townships, and the school affairs of each district are administered by a board of nine trustees, elected for six years.

Each secondary school has also its board of seven trustees, elected for four years. Each primary school commune has also its school board, elected in the same manner as the boards for secondary schools.

Parents are required to pay the public school rate or fee for each of their children during the required period of their attendance at school, whether they attend the communal school or not.

7. *Berne*.—This is the largest canton in the Swiss confederacy; and since 1848, it has become the capital of Switzerland, and the residence of the Ministers who represent the Foreign Powers to the Federal Government. Through the British Minister resident at Berne, I obtained all the documents and facilities I desired in respect to the objects of my enquiries. The Canton of Berne has a population of 458,301 inhabitants—a little less than one third that of Ontario—possesses 1 university; 2 cantonal schools; 1 real school; 2 institutes for deaf mutes; 3 normal schools for male teachers and 3 normal schools for female teachers; 5 progymnasiums; 29 secondary or high schools; 144 private institutions; 1,393 primary schools. Its school budget amounts to 929,257 francs, (\$185,851.) Its school regulations and system are very similar to those of the Canton of Zurich, and need not be repeated.

8. *Zeig*.—If Berne is the largest, Zeig is the smallest of all the Swiss Cantons; is almost lost in the midst of the cantons of Zurich, Schwitz, Lucerne and Argovia; yet may serve as an example to States of the first class. Its population amounts to only 17,000 inhabitants—one-third that of Toronto; and yet it possesses 1 gymnasium, or college; 1 superior school for girls: 1 female normal school; 3 latin schools; 5 secondary or high schools; 5 private institutions; 12 schools of improvement; 45 primary schools. Its public instruction is managed by one Board of eleven Trustees, placed under the Cantonal Council. Its school budget is 50,663 francs, (\$10,133.) The French school Commissioner to Switzerland in 1865, M. Baudouin, remarks:—"Among all the Swiss Cantons, Zeig is that which most glories in developing elementary instruction, and labours ceaselessly to improve its schools. Its system of instruction is complete; all its parts are linked together, and form an uninterrupted connection from the A. B. C. of the primary school to the superior studies of the university and of the polytechnic school at Zurich."

3.—GENERAL REMARKS ON EDUCATION IN SWITZERLAND.

Cantons.—The investigation of the educational systems and institutions of Switzerland is very instructive. It is divided into twenty-five independent cantons, each of which manages its own internal affairs according to its own views—including the system of public instruction. There are differences in the several cantons in language, religion, and in pursuits. They emulate each other in their

educational systems, various institutions, and internal improvements, whilst the Federal Government unites them all, and brings their representative men into immediate contact with each other, and enables them to compare systems and measures, and thus improve by each other's experience.

Progress.—The development of primary education in Switzerland dates from 1833, immediately after the overthrow of the old aristocratic oligarchies, when the cantonal governments became thoroughly popular, and the education of the people was commenced on a liberal scale.

Subjects.—Education in Switzerland is professedly based upon the “principles of Christianity and democracy,” and in the primary schools embraces:—1. Religious instruction; 2, reading; 3, writing; 4, Linear drawing; 5, orthography and grammar; 6, arithmetic and book-keeping; 7, singing; 8, elements of geography, and especially geography of Switzerland; 9, history of Switzerland; 10, elements of natural philosophy, with its practical applications; 11, exercises in composition; 12, instruction in the rights and duties of a citizen. In the Cantonal and Industrial schools the elements of chemistry are taught, together with its application to different kinds of manufacture. The religious instruction is given at the hours appointed by the ministers of the persuasions of the pupils; and if given by the teacher at all is given at the request of the minister whose place he consents to fill.

State Control of the public school system is common to all the Cantons. The Council of State is the supreme executive of each Canton, but, for the most part, delegates its controlling functions to a Board or Council General of Instruction, consisting of three or more members, presided over by the Minister of Public Instruction. Each Canton is divided into communes, or school sections, and in each commune there is an elective committee or board of trustees, but with limited powers over the school.

The Inspection of schools is, as a general rule, very carefully provided for. There are Cantonal, and local inspectors—the latter subordinate to the former—who frequently visit the schools, minutely examine them, and exercise large powers in the appointment and removal of teachers, and the organization and discipline of the schools.

Certificates.—Teachers must be certificated, and they are examined by a central board of public instruction, which (after a severe examination) gives each successful candidate a diploma, stating the subjects he is qualified to teach; but before a teacher is appointed to a school, he undergoes a second (competitive) examination before a local commission. Mr. Kay, the Cambridge University travelling bachelor, remarks in his *Education of the Poor in Europe* that “the character and abilities of teachers are not considered in Switzerland as matters of small concern, but on the contrary, every precaution is taken to guard against the possibility of a man of low character or poor education obtaining such a post. It is happily understood in the Swiss Cantons, that such a schoolmaster is worse than none at all.”

Salaries.—The minimum of a teacher's salary is fixed by law in most of the Cantons—varying from 500 francs (\$100) to 1,000 francs (\$200). For example in the rich Canton of Vaud, the legal *minimum* of a male teacher's salary is 500 francs (\$100), the minimum of a female teacher's salary, 250 francs (\$50)—with an increase of 50 francs (\$10) a year after ten years service. In the Canton of Geneva, the minimum of a master's salary in town is 1,400 francs (\$280), in the rural Communes, 1,000 francs (200); the minimum of a mistress's salary in town is 900 francs (\$180)—in the country, 700 francs (\$140). But there is also what is called a *casual* of six cents a month for every pupil up to 50, and four cents a month for every pupil above that number, paid by government. In the little Canton of Neuchâtel, the State, on certain conditions and in a certain combined proportion with the communes, increases the teacher's salary to 2,000 francs (\$400), "By this means (says Mr. Arnold) Neuchâtel, though without a normal school of its own, easily procures as its primary teachers the best of the students trained at Lausanne" in the neighbouring Canton of Vaud. I have given other examples on a previous page, and I need not add to them here. But it is worthy of remark, that just in proportion to the liberality of the teacher's salary, and the thoroughness of inspection, is the efficiency of the schools to be seen in the different Cantons.

4.—COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN SWITZERLAND.

8. The *Compulsory attendance* of pupils at school is now the law, in four out of five of the French Cantons, and in all the rest of the Cantons of Switzerland, Mr. Arnold, who visited the French Cantons of Switzerland only, and that during the "holidays, and could not wait until they should be over," doubts whether the law of compulsory attendance is strictly enforced. He says:—

5.—REPORT OF MR. ARNOLD ON COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

"In the Canton of Geneva, instruction is not by law compulsory; in the other four (French) Cantons it is. I was anxious to ascertain exactly in what this compulsoriness consisted, and how far it was really made effectual. I read in the law that parents not sending their children to the school, were to be warned, summoned, sentenced to fine and imprisonment, according to their various degrees of negligence. I found due provision made for the recovery, by means of the ordinary tribunals, of such a fine; for the execution, by their means, of such a sentence of imprisonment. I asked myself,—In the Cantons of Vaud, Fribourg, Neuchâtel, and the Valais, must every child between the ages of 7 and 15 actually be at school all the year round, and, if he is not, are his parents actually punished for it?" In the first place, I soon discovered that he need not be at school all the year round. To take one of the poorest Cantons, a Canton in which it seems to me incredible that the compulsory principle should be fully carried out—the Canton of Valais. The law of the Canton of Valais proclaims that education is compulsory. But it also proclaims that the school years shall

not be less than five months. It is for five months in the year, then, and not for ten, that children in the Valais are obliged to go to school. Again I take the Canton of Fribourg, and I find that there also education is obligatory up to the age of 15. But the law gives power to the inspector to exempt from this obligation of attendance at school, children who are sufficiently advanced, and children whose labor their parents cannot do without. In the Canton of Fribourg, again, the school vacations, says the law, must not exceed three months in the year. These are long holidays for primary schools. But I take the largest and richest of all the French Cantons, the Canton of Vaud. In the Canton of Vaud the law makes the attendance at school compulsory on all young persons between the ages of seven and sixteen. Are there no exceptions? I go on reading the law, and I find presently that the school committee may grant dispensations to all children above twelve years whose labour is necessary to their parents. It is made a condition, however, that these children continue to attend school certain times in a week. Children above twelve years of age, then, may, in one way or another, get their school time very much abridged; but, on any of the children at all, or on any parents, is the obligation written in the law actually enforced? At Geneva, the best informed persons did not hesitate to assure me that the obligation of school attendance in the Canton of Vaud was perfectly illusory. When I mentioned this at Lausanne, [Capital of the Canton of Vaud] it was indignantly denied; I was told that the schools of Vaud were excellently attended, and its population almost universally instructed. But of this I had no doubt; so they are everywhere in the prosperous Swiss Cantons; so they were in Geneva where education is not compulsory. What compulsory education is in America or Germany I cannot tell; in the only place where I have been able to examine it closely it is what I have described.”*

Mr. Arnold admits that in the poorest Canton which he visited, attendance of children from 7 to 15 years of age was compulsory during *five months* of the year, and in the other Cantons 9 or 10 months of the year. In Ontario, it has never been proposed to make attendance at school compulsory more than *six months* in a year. Mr. Arnold also admits that the compulsory attendance of pupils above 12 years of age is only relaxed upon certain conditions. I think the statements of persons in the capital of the Canton of Vaud are more to be relied upon than the assertions of persons at Geneva, who would, doubtless, wish to justify their own course of proceeding in contrast to that of the neighbouring Cantons.

It is also worthy of remark, that the Cantons of Vaud and Fribourg are two of the most democratic Cantons in Switzerland, and the most democratic governments in the world. Mr. Arnold says nothing of the Canton of Neuchâtel; where, as appears from a passage I quoted from the French Commissioner, the law for the compulsory attendance of children is strictly observed. His words are:—“ Dans tout le Canton, l'instruction est obligatoire de six à seize ans accomplis, et la loi sur la fréquentation des écoles est *severement observée*.”

*Arnold's Report, pp. 124-126.

6.—REPORT OF M. BAUDOUIN ON COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

M. Baudouin, the French School Commissioner, was sent by his Government to Switzerland in 1865, five years after Mr. Arnold, and visited the schools not only of the French Cantons, but also of most of the other Swiss Cantons. Referring first to the schools in the Canton of Zurich and then to those of other Cantons, M. Baudouin remarks as follows (translation.) :—

“The end which the administrative authorities propose in founding the popular schools (*Volksschulen*), in general has been to give to all the children of the Canton indiscriminately, to whatever class or religion they appertained, the instruction necessary to make them intelligent citizens and useful to their country.

“In consequence the primary school is obligatory upon every one, and every Swiss is *Schulpflichtig* from 16 years, that is to say, subject and bound to the school, as every Swiss is by birth a soldier.

“There are only exceptional circumstances, as a malady, too great physical weakness, or imbecility, which can exempt them from it, and then it is necessary that these facts be verified and attested by the physician of the Cantonal Commission.

“Once subject to the academic obligation, children must attend the school regularly until their confirmation, that is until the age of sixteen years complete.

“If the parents desire to place their children in any private institution, or to educate their children under their own eyes, the law does not forbid them ; but they must previously state their reasons to the President of the School Commission, which ordinarily grants the authorization requested. Notwithstanding, the Commission reserves to itself the right of causing such children to be examined when it thinks proper, in order to be satisfied that they receive an instruction equivalent to that which is given in the public schools.

“Besides, as long as the children are subject to school obligations (*Schulzwang*) their family must pay the school rate or fees, as if they attended the classes of the communal school.”

“Eight days before the commencement of the school year, and the opening of the schools, that is to say, ordinarily the first part of May, the commission of superintendence addresses to all persons interested a copy of the school law, and reminds them at the same time of the obligation which they are under of sending their children to school,”

“The penalty, which, in Germany varies a little in different states, is in Switzerland invariably severe, (invariablement sévère). The parents or guardians who violate the law by permitting their children to absent themselves from the school without permission, or without admissible excuse are first warned, then after a second absence of the child, are punished by a fine of from 8 to 10 florins, and in case of repetition are condemned to prison by the ordinary tribunals.

"In some Cantons the fines are so frequent that their gross sum sensibly increases the school funds; but for the most part the penalty is very rarely inflicted. Each head of a family holds it an honour to educate his children; and public opinion is as powerful as the law, (*l'opinion publique est aussi puissante que les lois*)."*

M. Baudouin justly remarks that the law is not executed with equal energy and strictness in all the Cantons. He observes:—

"In the Cantons of Bâle, Zurich, Berne, Neuchâtel, &c., public instruction is obligatory. The authorities see that the school laws are strictly observed; the ministers of religion encourage and stimulate the masters; the Grand Councils interest themselves in the progress of the schools, and encourage improvements. In the Cantons of Lucerne, Soleure, Schwitz, &c., [Roman Catholic] the Commissions of Superintendence remain indifferent; the Grand Councils, composed of farmers, under influences little enlightened, think that the state of education is perfect in remaining what it was in their time. Thus, when a person travels in Switzerland, not to admire the beauty of the landscapes, but to carefully [*au fond*] observe institutions and form opinions from results, he has no need of marking the territorial limits in order to perceive that he is passing from a Canton in which education is neglected, into another where it is carefully cultivated."

"Let us conclude then, without fear of deceiving ourselves, that the prosperity of a country marches parallel with public instruction, and advances, or retrogrades, or remains stationary with it; and that there is always, between these two facts, an incontestable connection, which bears the authentic character of cause and effect.†

7.—GYMNASTIC EXERCISES IN SWITZERLAND.

I ought not to close this notice of public instruction in Switzerland without referring to a feature of its schools, common to nearly all the Cantons. I allude to the *Gymnastic and Military Exercises*. I had little opportunity myself to witness these exercises, but I translate what M. Baudouin, the French School Commissioner to Switzerland in 1865, has said on the subject. He says:—

"The Government attaches the greatest importance to instructions in gymnastics. Thus, in order to have good masters, it selects well-made intelligent young men, who show fondness and talent for physical exercises, and sends them to study, at its own expense, some years in the great establishment at Dresden. They bring back excellent methods, which they improve, and modify a little, in order to adapt them to the spirit of their own institutions; since the gymnastic exercises are to prepare for military exercises the pupils of the cadet corps. The plan which the professor of gymnastics proposes to follow must always be subject to a Commission of Superintendence, whose members are nominated by the general inspectors of infantry and artillery. A member of

* Rapport sur l'état actuel de l'Enseignement Spécial, et de l'Enseignement Primaire en Belgique, en Allemagne et en Suisse, (1865). pp. 427, 428.

† *Ib.*, p. 494.

that commission must be present at the exercises ; and if any accident happens, a fall, wound, &c., he sends without delay for the President of the Commission.

"I have been present at the gymnastic lessons given at Neuchâtel at Berne, at Zurich, at Saint Gall, and at Bâle, and I think that Germany might well send, in its turn, some of the best subjects to study gymnastics in the Cantonal schools of Switzerland.

8.—MILITARY EXERCISES IN SWITZERLAND.

"Almost all the establishments of superior education in Switzerland are militarily organized in infantry companies. From the age of eleven years, all boys have their hours of military exercise, and wear a uniform, as if they already made part of the army. The largest schools, besides their companies of infantry have their batteries of artillery, armed with two, three or four pieces of cannon. The artillerymen are taken from the pupils of the higher classes, who have already performed at least one year's service in the infantry companies. On the recommendation of the instructor-general and in accord with the director of the secondary school, the inspector-general designates, from among the pupils of the lower school, those who are to exercise themselves on the drum, and names the largest of those selected, as drum-major. This little army of scholars is called a cadet corps (*corps de cadets*).

"The State or Communes, according to their resources, furnish the arms, the scholar pays for his uniform and keeps in order his equipment. Old skilful and experienced soldiers devote their leisure of retirement to the instruction of cadets ; and from time to time there takes place in the Cantons field exercises, the expenses of which are paid out of the school funds. Each year the companies of infantry and artillery meet near a town, designated beforehand, for great manœuvres, which are usually commanded by a superior officer. During this practice the boy-soldiers are entertained by the inhabitants of the towns. After the manœuvres the military director (Minister of War) may, on the recommendation of the instructor-general, make mention, in an order of the day, of those who have distinguished themselves during these exercises. It is thus that the young Swiss practise the trade of arms, become familiarized with the idea of death on the battle-field, and submit at an early hour to military duties and discipline."

V.—PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN BELGIUM.

Belgium, which was connected with Holland from 1815 to 1830 has copied more from France (though much less despotic) than from Holland, in the organization of its System of Public Instruction. But as it was proposed some years since to send a Commission from Canada to Belgium, to investigate its educational system, I may here give a synopsis of its provisions and results.

1.—SYNOPTICAL VIEW OF EDUCATION IN BELGIUM.

The following synoptical view of the Belgian System of Public Instruction is translated and abridged from the report of the French School Commissioner to Belgium, in 1865—M. Baudouin :

“Belgium is divided into Provinces, Arrondissements, and Communes. Governors administer the Provinces; Commissioners, the Arrondissements; and Burgomasters the Communes, with the concurrence of a Council. These correspond to the French Prefects, the Sub-Prefects, and the Mayors, with the Deputies and Municipal Council.

“The administration of the Governor of a Province is superintended and controlled by Deputies, whom the Communes elect, and who meet under the name of *States*.

“A Committee formed of a certain number of these deputies remain assembled in the intervals of the session of the States, under the name of *Permanent Deputation*.

“The Permanent Deputations evince much zeal and devotion in the exercise of their important functions. From the commencement of putting into execution the law of 1842, on primary schools, they heartily devoted themselves to the interests of popular instruction; and, animated by the most lively solicitude for everything which related to the question of elevated moral order, they did not cease to labor for the improvement and development of instruction in all the Communes of Belgium.

“There are still, it is true, many Communal administrations that are little careful of the rights which the law confers upon them, and of the manner in which their schools are kept, and unfortunately this spirit is not peculiar to Belgium—but this disposition diminishes in proportion as elementary instruction spreads. The Communes occupy themselves in building school-houses, and if their good will is not contravened by any unexpected event, it is to be hoped that before long each locality will have its school-house as each parish has its church.

“The population of Belgium is 4,458,507, that is, about one-eighth of the population of France. The number of public and private schools, not including boarding schools, is 5,322, (not one-third more than in Ontario, though our population is only one-third of that of Belgium.)”

“The law of 1842 established or recognized three kinds of schools, which are:—

“1. Communal schools, founded, supported and administered by the Communes themselves. (Our Common schools.)

“2. Private adopted schools, which are substitutes for Communal schools, and undertake for an indemnity, or certain remuneration, the instruction of poor children.

"3. Private free schools, which admit gratuitously all poor children, and relieve the Commune from all obligation to provide for their primary instruction. These are mostly schools of religious orders.

"In Belgium there are reckoned 3,095 Communal schools, of which 838 are for boys, 369 for girls, and 1,888 for both sexes. Adopted schools, 749, of which 87 are for boys, 396 for girls, and 266 for both sexes. Private schools, 1,478, of which 270 are for boys, 579 for girls, and 629 for both sexes. About 240 are boarding schools.

"All these schools are subject to a double inspection—inspection civil and ecclesiastical,—but the inspectors cannot officially visit schools of the third kind more than once a year, and only for the purpose of satisfying themselves that these schools continue in the conditions desired in order to take the place of the communal or adopted schools.

"The primary schools subject to inspection, including the boarding schools are attended by 408,133 pupils [not 10,000 more than in Ontario], of whom 222,490 are boys, and 185,643 are girls. The various primary schools receive 209,865 paying pupils, not including boarding schools which contain 2,437. Of this number 111,031 attended the communal schools, 28,854 the private adopted schools, and 69,980 the private schools, entirely free.

"By comparing these figures with those of the ten previous years it is found that there is an increase of 2,542 pupils in the communal schools, a decrease of 202 in the adopted schools, an increase of 794 in the private schools, and a decrease of 9,619 in the private free schools. There seems, therefore, an actual decrease of pupils upon the whole from 1855 to 1865."

2.—MIXED SCHOOLS FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.

"The absolute independence of the communal administrations, and the working of constitutional (or free) institutions often create in Belgium situations peculiar and embarrassing. Some communes are still destitute of all means of instruction, and others have only mixed schools of boys and girls taught by male teachers.

"The system of mixed schools presents great inconveniences when the classes are numerous, because then the oversight of the teacher becomes very difficult. Notwithstanding, if the teacher is a serious and moral man the children of both sexes may be united in the same place, but in separate groups, as they are in the commune schools of several Swiss Cantons. It is not being together at school which is the danger—that commences later, when the young men and women enter into active life. In Northern Germany, I have seen only a few mixed schools, because the German pedagogues are convinced that young girls receive under the care of capable female teachers, an instruction more appropriate to their nature and to the wants of their future position. But there must be a considerable number of children of both sexes in order that the state may impose upon a commune the obligation of establishing two distinct schools; and in Belgium the local authorities refuse often to vote the sums demanded for the establishment of two schools.

3.—FINANCIAL PROVISION FOR THE SUPPORT OF SCHOOLS.

"Under the government of the Netherlands, the expenses of building, repairing and furnishing school houses, constituted a charge essentially communal. But the State was often obliged to come to the assistance of poor communes. To those which were not able to defray the expenses of building or repairing their school houses, the government advanced five per cent., repayable at least at the end of ten years.

"In 1830, (when Belgium was separated from Holland), the communes found themselves freed from all legal obligation, and became the sole judges of the expediency of expenses relative to primary instruction; yet some of them continued to incur them. The government and the province granted to the communes assistance under the name of encouragement, and contributed to the expenses of building school-houses—the government paying one sixth, the province one sixth, and the commune four sixths, or two thirds.

"As the communes could not be compelled to include in their budget the least sum for primary instruction, it thence resulted that in 1842 the greater number of them did not possess school-houses, and rented places little fit for their purpose. Therefore in 1851, the government, seeing that the law of 1842, by the terms of which each commune was to have at least one primary school, received only a partial and incomplete application, opened a credit of a million of francs (\$200,000). This generous initiative stimulated the communal authorities; and, thanks to the voluntary subscriptions, foundations, donations, and subsidies, a great number of school-houses were simultaneously constructed. In nine years, the expenses of these constructions amounted to more than eight millions.

4.—EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES OF BELGIUM.

"At this day the Communes possess in their own right, 2,465 school-houses and 1,876 houses for teachers. These 2,465 school-houses contain 3,414 class-rooms, being able to receive 230,280 pupils, at the rate of 75 square decimetres of surface, and 4 cubic metres of air in height. But in many other Communes children are received into rented buildings which do not appear to have been erected for school-houses, and in which more pupils are admitted than they ought to contain."

5.—REMARKS ON THE EDUCATIONAL WANTS OF BELGIUM.

Monsieur Baudouin adds to the above statistics of primary schools, the following observations:

"With the habits of independence peculiar to the Communes of Belgium, they will never succeed in providing regularly and suitably for the wants of instruction in that which relates to school-houses, the furniture and class-rooms, as long as a strict regulation shall not oblige (as in Switzerland and Germany)

the Municipal magistrates to visit the schools often, and see to the appearance of the class-rooms, and satisfy themselves as to the condition of the establishment."

"Popular instruction in Belgium is then placed in unfavorable circumstances, and is therefore little developed. The number of Militia not knowing how to read or write is 31 per cent. During the three last years which have just elapsed 65,506 pupils have finally quit school; and of that number, 21,566, that is to say, 33 per cent. only, have pursued the complete course of primary studies. Thus more than two-thirds of the children cease to attend school before learning the minimum of the knowledge indispensable to ordinary life, applying themselves prematurely to industrial and domestic labor."

6.—EDUCATIONAL CONTESTS IN BELGIUM.

"I have often asked, and in various parts of the kingdom, what could be the cause of this state of things; but it was impossible to extract the truth from the passionate and partial reasons given me. In Belgium there are two opposite, irreconcilable parties (both Catholic), and of almost equal strength, which carry their quarrels even to the sanctuary of the Legislature,—where the affairs of the nation ought to be treated with calmness and impartiality—dividing between them the direction of the public mind and the control of the Communes. This enmity neutralizes the respective efforts which each party makes for the improvement of primary instruction. Each party throws upon the other the blame of their common dissensions and makes it alone responsible for the state of education.

"In the one-half of the province,' say the liberals, 'human affairs are directed by the occult power of religious institutions; the priests govern the schools, as they lead the elections; the independence of the teacher is only a nominal thing, and in fact before everything, he is responsible to the priest of the parish for the nature and tendency of his teaching. Thus, when we desire to extend the principle of popular instruction, we find unexpected resistance which arises from the antipathy of the clergy to the development of public instruction, and all improvement becomes impossible.'

"Society at the present time,' reply the Catholics (those who profess to be so par-excellence), 'has no more principles, no more solid basis, because it has not the primitive law, and has departed from religion. Modern institutions are atheistic, since they admit all forms of worship without distinction of truth or origin. The priesthood has been removed from the schools by legislation; it (the priesthood) ought to refuse its concurrence in improvements directed against itself. Now, as only that is done easily among men which is seconded by religion, the best intentions are unattainable.'

"Happy the country like Germany, whose national religion imbibes a spirit which renders the instruction of the people necessary, in which each man, obliged to read often, to study, to know, to meditate upon the scriptures, is, by the same means, obliged to learn to read! For then primary instruction, repos-

ing upon the religious worship itself, derives from it a double character, which renders it at once sacred and obligatory, and, besides, the clergy labour with all their strength for the development of the instruction of the people, since none are so interested as they in the progress of a knowledge which is necessary to each one in the performance of his religious duties."

It will be recollected that the above remarks are those of the French School Commissioner to Belgium and to other countries, which he makes in his report to the Emperor in 1865.

Of the Normal Schools, the Secondary Schools, the Colleges and Universities of Belgium, I need not speak. I have given this notice of the system and state of its primary instruction, because an advocacy was set on foot several years ago to import some features of the Belgian school system into Ontario. That system compares very poorly with the school system of France, or Switzerland, or Prussia, or with that of Holland, from which Belgium separated in 1830.

VI.—GRAND DUCHY OF BADEN.

[NOTE.—It would extend my report beyond due limits, were I to describe at length the systems of instruction in all the German States, much more the systems of all the countries of Europe. The systems of instruction in all the German States are very much adopted from Prussia, with slight and circumstantial differences. Even in Switzerland, the Prussian programme of studies in the primary schools is mostly adopted; and the general regulations of the Prussian system are largely engrafted in the democratic institutions of the Swiss Cantons. After the account I have given of the systems of public instruction in Prussia, Holland and Switzerland, it will be needless for me to notice the systems of the smaller States of Germany; but there are peculiarities with the school system of the Grand Duchy of Baden that render it worthy of special notice. I will afterwards give short notices of the systems of public instruction in Wurtemberg, Bavaria, Saxony and Austria; also in Denmark, Norway and Sweden.]

1.—REMARKS ON THE EXTENT AND POPULATION OF THE GRAND DUCHY.

The Grand Duchy of Baden has almost exactly the same population as Ontario according to the last census in 1860. The population of Baden was in 1865 1,357,200 inhabitants, among whom are reckoned 905,000 Catholics, 423,000 Protestants, and about 23,000 Jews, with a few Menonites.

The Grand Duke divides the Legislative power with two chambers, of nobles, and of deputies.

The Constitution secures liberty of worship, vote of taxes, and independence of tribunals, &c.

5.—EDUCATIONAL STATE OF THE GRAND DUCHY OF BADEN.

The Grand Duchy possesses two celebrated universities—that of Fribourg, with a Faculty of Catholic Theology; that of Heidelberg, with a Faculty of Lutheran Theology; one Roman Catholic Archiepiscopal Seminary; 1 Polytechnic School; 1 School of the Fine Arts; 1 School of Deaf Mutes; 1 Institute of the Young Blind; 1 Military School; 1 Staff School; 3 Primary Normal Schools; Superior Normal Schools; 2 Schools of Agriculture and Rural Economy; 5 Gynmasiums; 7 Lyceums, (each with a class in Philosophy); 5 Superior Schools for girls; 28 Superior Citizen Schools; 34 Schools of Arts and Trades; 2,157 Primary Schools, (one half that of Ontario), of which 1,389 are Catholic, 740 Protestant, and 28 Jewish.

Among these establishments perhaps the most remarkable is the Polytechnic School at Karlsruhe, which contains five different schools; School of Engineers, Architects, Forests, Arts, Trades and Commerce.

6.—RE-ORGANIZATION OF THE SYSTEM OF PUBLIC EDUCATION IN BADEN.

Of all the German States none was more profoundly agitated by the events of 1848 than the Grand Duchy of Baden. Its system and administration of government became greatly modified, and its system of public instruction has since been completely revolutionized. There being great dissatisfaction with the little or no progress of Primary Schools, in comparison with that of the Secondary Schools, a High Commission, presided over by the celebrated Doctor Kneiss, was appointed September 15, 1862, to enquire into the cause of it, and to suggest the proper remedy. After a year of study and conscientious research, the President prepared a memoir or report, which was unanimously adopted by the Commission, and presented to the Minister of the Interior, in 1863. This remarkable document, which is now before me, is divided into three parts. The first contains a summary *exposé* of the organization of the system of public instruction as it existed at the time of the appointment of the Commission; the second part points out the "hereditary" defects of that system, and indicates at the same time the measures to be taken to prevent their perpetuation; the third part contains the recommendations of the Commission, in the form of a bill, or project of law.

These recommendations were presented to the Second Chamber, or Lower House, in the form of a project of law, which was passed, after three weeks deliberation—from the 6th to the 28th of June, 1864—with only two dissentients, was carried to the First or Upper Chamber the 16th of July, and passed with two dissenting voices, and was proclaimed the 29th July, 1864.

This is the latest and perhaps most perfect specimen of what we call constitutional legislation in Germany on the subject of primary instruction. It is for

a country about equal in population to this Province, I will therefore translate the articles of this law entire, from the report of the French School Commissioner, M. Baudouin, and then give his account of the opposition of the Clergy to the law, and the truly constitutional conduct of the Grand Duke in maintaining the legal rights of his people, in respect to it.

7.—LAW PROVIDING FOR THE ORGANIZATION OF PRIMARY INSTRUCTION, IN BADEN

“Art. 1st, The object of primary instruction is to teach children, according to uniform methods, the practical knowledge which is necessary in the course of ordinary life, in order to make reasonable, religious and moral men, and active members of the great human family.

“2. The Primary Schools are divided into Simple Schools and Superior Schools; the first are those which have only one teacher, and in which instruction is reduced to matters required by the present law; the second are those which have several teachers, under whom simple instruction is completed and from whom children receive the maximum of lessons, that is to say, 35 lessons per week.

“3. The subjects of instruction in a simple school are, Religion, German, Arithmetic, Geometry, Natural History, History and Geography, Natural Philosophy, Writing, Singing, Drawing, Gymnastics for boys, and work with the needle for girls. The teacher will select for his lessons of Natural History and Natural Philosophy, the principles (or subjects) by which he may be furnished with useful applications to agriculture and rural economy. In teaching history and geography, he shall not forget that he has a mission to form religious and devout citizens.

“4. The subjects of instruction in the superior (primary) schools are the same as those in simple (or elementary) schools, but more extensive and deeper. Thus the teacher may explain to the pupils of the highest classes, the most remarkable popular poems, and give at the end of his course of instruction in history a view of the constitutional (or free) institutions of the Grand Duchy of Baden, and teach the elements of the French language.

“5. Two hours each week shall be consecrated to religious instruction. The pastor (curé) may superintend it, unless his presence shall injure the uniform course of the school.

“6. Boys are subject to school obligation (attendance at school) from 6 to 14 years, and girls from 6 to 13 years complete.

“7. The school on Sunday is abolished. The course of evening instruction for apprentices is optional.

“8. The pupils of the Primary Schools are divided into two or several classes according to the number of children.

“Each teacher shall give 32 lessons per week.

“The classes shall form at least four, and at most eight divisions.

“When the number of children shall not exceed 60, the school shall have only one teacher. When it shall exceed 60, it shall contain three classes.

"9. The pupils of the higher class shall receive at least 18 lessons per week ; those of the middle class, 14 ; and those of the lower class, 12.

"10. The local authorities of the school may introduce changes required by the interests of the locality, provided they are not contrary to the first article. The schemes of studies shall be prepared by the teachers, approved by the local Committee, and authorized by the Superior Council. If the priest (*cure*) of the parish intends himself to give the lessons of religion, he may at the commencement of the school year, choose the hours most convenient to himself.

"11. Each subject of instruction must have its appointed hours.

"12. The duty of the teacher consists in not only giving his lessons and maintaining order in his class, but in teaching the children to do good for the sake of the good itself, and in showing them by his own example how a good citizen ought to conduct himself towards his neighbour. It is forbidden to a teacher to address abusive or coarse words, (*des paroles injurieuses ou grossières*,) to his pupils, and for a stronger reason to strike them.

"13. The confessional (that is, denominational) schools which existed before the edict of the 28th August, 1834, as well as those which have been established by the communes, may be changed into mixed (that is non-denominational,) schools, if a majority of the inhabitants express a wish for it.

"14. Nevertheless, if during three consecutive years, the number of children attending a confessional school has declined to below 20, the inhabitants who desire to have a mixed school shall not be obliged to obtain the consent of the majority in order to be able to change the character of their school.

"15. If, in a locality in which there are two different confessions, one of the two only has a confessional school, and the other has none, though it contains more than 40 children subject to school obligation, this last may force the commune to establish a confessional or a mixed school.

"16. Mixed schools which have been five years in existence, may be dissolved and form distinct schools.

"17. The distinct (or separate) schools share equally in the proportional allowances made by the communes.

"18. The local inspection with which the priest (or minister) was charged, shall be replaced by a local committee of superintendence.

"19. In the communes which have separate confessional (denominational) schools, each school must have its own committee. Nevertheless the Commune may, at its pleasure, have a single committee of superintendence for the different schools.

"20. The committee is composed of *ex officio* members and members *elect*. The *ex officio* members are :—

1. The priest (or pastor) of the commune.
2. The Mayor, or a delegate chosen by the Municipal Council.
3. The teacher himself.

And in important communes

4. The superintending committees of a public secondary school.
5. The physician of the commune.
6. The Rabbi.

To these persons who, *ex officio*, make part of the committee, must be added those who are elected for six years, and whose number must always exceed that of the *ex officio* members.

"21. The president of the committee is elected by ballot by the *ex officio* and elected members. The choice must be confirmed by the Inspectorship of the circle.

"The committee chooses, besides, one or several inspectors, who, every three months, render an account of the state of the school.

"The functions of the president and inspector are not incompatible.

"22. The teacher cannot be elected either president or inspector. He does not attend at the sittings in which he is personally concerned ; but in such case the result must be communicated to him.

"23. The functions of inspector of the schools of the district with which the priest or pastor to the district was charged, are abolished. The government will appoint inspectors of the circle, who cannot engage in any other employment.

"24. The régime of the boarding house shall no longer be obligatory for the Normal Schools. No one shall be admitted to the instruction of the school, unless he gives proof that he is 16 years of age and possesses the knowledge required by law.

"25. The complete instruction in the Normal School shall embrace three years, which will be followed by an optional course of reviews during six months."

"26. The instruction given in the Normal School, required to be based upon that of the Primary Superior School, must be extended to German Literature, Rural Economy, the French language, History, to be completed by some lessons on the fundamental institutions of the Grand Duchy of Baden.

"27. The pupils of Normal Schools must submit to a strict examination before being appointed candidate teachers.

"28. After having exercised the functions of school master during three years, two of which must be passed in a school in the Grand Duchy, the candidates must submit to a new examination in order to obtain the title of principal teacher. This second examination will be rather practical than theoretical.

"29. Only the candidates who shall have obtained the note, "very capable," shall be received principal teachers of a Superior School. Teachers of simple (lower primary) schools shall also be admitted to prove that they have the knowledge necessary to teach in a superior Primary School.

"30. Special establishments are maintained, which offer to principal and supplementary teachers, the means of improving themselves in the sciences ; the teachers must then seek to complete the studies which they have commenced in the Normal School.

"31, 32 and 33. Teachers are exempt from the service of sacristan, bellringer and organist, the superior Council having judged that it was incompatible with

their duties. Nevertheless they may continue to play the organ, if it does not interfere with their functions ; and in that case they shall receive from the church wardens fees which may be privately agreed upon.

“ 34 and 35. The situations of teachers are ranged in three classes in proportion to population.

“ To the first class, the schools of communes which have 1,000 inhabitants.

“ To the second class, those of communes which have more than 1,000 and less than 2,500 inhabitants.

“ To the third, those of communes which have more than 2,500 inhabitants.

“ 36. The increase of salary which was accorded to the teachers of the four large towns of the Grand Duchy, shall be given to all those who reside in towns whose population exceeds 6,000 inhabitants.

“ 37, 38 and 39. The salary of teachers shall be increased proportionably to their years of service, until it reaches the figure of 600 florins (1,285 francs,) (\$257.)

“ 40. The pensions granted to the widows and orphans of teachers shall be increased.

“ 41. The principal teacher shall no longer be obliged to lodge and board his assistant teacher.

“ 42. The assistant teacher is gratuitously lodged in the school house when the arrangement of the premises permits ; if not, he receives an indemnity sufficient to enable him to provide his own lodgings.

“ 43. Besides, the assistant master has a right to one-sixth of the school fees.

“ 44. The Jewish schools and their teachers are regulated by the present law. When in any locality, are found a Jewish school and any other school whatever, the communal allowances shall be divided between them in proportion to the number of inhabitants of each worship.”

8.—FRENCH REMARKS ON THE PASSAGE OF THIS LAW.

Such is the text of the project of law which was reported to, and adopted by the Legislature of the Grand Duchy of Baden in 1864. Monsieur Baudouin, the French school commissioner, who reports to his Sovereign in March, 1865, remarks on this law and its reception, as follows :

“ It was adopted the 28th June, and the 16th of last July voted in the two Chambers unanimously, less two voices, and accepted with gratitude by the great majority of the inhabitants of the Duchy.

“ But the clergy, who by the articles 7, 10, 18, 20, 31 and the following, found themselves dispossessed of the influential part which they had long possessed in primary instruction, opposed, with all their power, the execution of the law. They displayed an indefatigable activity to prevent putting into practice the 20th article, and declared that they would refuse the sacraments to those who should dare to elect school inspectors. The Archbishop of Fribourg published

several pastoral letters to denounce before the public the impiety of the new law; and the Holy Father (*Saint Siège*) deemed it his duty to threaten with excommunication the school commission, with its president, and the government itself. But the inhabitants, convinced that the great powers of the state had only a single end in view, unanimously adopting the proposed measures—that of elevating primary education and of developing with popular instruction the prosperity of the country,—desired to exercise the rights which the new law conferred on them, and out of 1,720 communes, 60 only refused to elect the school committees and school inspectors. After having endeavoured to prevent the vote of the Chambers, a report was spread that some might, by addressing the Grand Duke himself, induce him to replace the law by a provisional regulation which would annul it; and each day new petitions were addressed to the Palace of Carlsruhe. But this Prince has just written to his minister of the Interior a letter intended to be made public, and in which is found the following passage:—

“I do not desire that the legal representation of my people, should be enfeebled by a deviation from the constitutional course. I do not wish that a direct intervention of the Crown should be claimed in favour of views which, whatever they may be, not being made known in a regular way, can only be regarded as the exigencies of party.

“My intervention, in the regular working of the two powers, must be employed in maintaining in its integrity the action of legislation and of government, but never—contrariwise to what is desired—to turn the executive and legislative powers against each other.”

Thus, as M. Baudouin adds, “the Grand Duke Frederic II. appears firmly resolved to respect the rights of national representation. There must then be obedience, and from that time the amelioration of primary instruction is assured.”

VII.—KINGDOM OF WURTEMBERG.

1.—EXTENT AND CONDITION OF THE KINGDOM.

The population of the Kingdom of Wurtemberg is 1,822,926 inhabitants, (about 300,000 more than that of this Province, about what Ontario will be at the next census,) all of the German race, of whom 1,179,814 are Protestants, 627,057 are Catholics, 11,338 are Jews, and 4,717 belong to other sects.

Wurtemberg is a constitutional monarchy, with two legislative chambers. The first is that of nobles, two-thirds of whom are nominated by the Crown, and one-third are hereditary. The second Chamber is composed of Deputies elected by all who hold property in the electoral district, in which they vote,

and are twenty-five years of age. The Kingdom is divided into 4 circles; each Circle is administered by a Regency, which is subdivided into arrondissements containing a certain number of Communes. The Communes are managed by an *Executive Council* (the President of which is appointed by the King,) and by a committee of citizens charged with the assessment of taxes.

The different Christian Communions recognized by the Constitution, manage their own affairs, under the protection and oversight of the Government. It is known that the Concordat of 1857, gives more than equal protection to the Roman Catholic clergy. In this small Kingdom, apart from State or public schools, there are 9 establishments for Religious Education; 6 Ordinary Seminaries, of which 4 are Protestant and 2 Catholic; 2 Superior Seminaries, 1 Protestant the other Catholic; the famous University of Tubingen, with its library of 60,000 volumes, its beautiful botanical garden, its amphitheatre of anatomy and rich anatomical collections, its 1,200 students, and six faculties, including the faculty of theology, which has done so much to undermine the very foundations of revealed truth.

2.—EDUCATIONAL CONDITION OF THE KINGDOM OF WURTEMBERG.

The State possesses 1 Polytechnic School; 1 School of Fine Arts; 1 School of Architecture; 1 School of Forests; 1 School of Commerce; 6 Lyceums, 3 without and 3 with a course of Philosophy; 3 Normal Schools; 3 Schools of Agriculture; 7 Gymnasiums; 8 Real Schools of the first order, and 46 Real Schools of the second order; 6 Progymnasiums or Latin Schools; 2,337 Primary Schools (little more than half those of Ontario), of which 1,455 are Protestant, 870 Catholic and 12 Jewish.

Instruction is uniformly spread among all classes of society, and the teachers of Primary Schools are said to have a position better than those of any other part of Germany.

Primary Instruction was made obligatory by a decree dated 31st December, 1810, confirmed by regulations of 1824, and again by a decree dated June 1st, 1864. All children are bound to attend school from 6 to 14 years of age, inclusive. At this age they are required to submit to a final examination on all subjects which have been taught them from their entrance into the school; and those of them who cannot pass a satisfactory examination are required to continue their studies one or two years longer. After having left the Primary School young persons are required to attend regularly the Sunday School until their 18th year, unless they pursue their studies in the Superior School, or in the Sunday Technical School.

The Primary Catholic, Protestant and Jewish Schools have the same programmes and methods of study in secular subjects. The only perceptible difference is in religious instruction. The subjects taught in the Primary Schools are divided into *essential* and *supplementary*. The first includes religion, morality

reading, writing, grammar, singing. The second includes sacred history, geography, natural history, elements of natural philosophy, of meteorology, of agriculture, of hygiene and gymnastics.

Did my limits permit, I would gladly give some account of the peculiar character and teaching of the different schools mentioned above, and of the schools and institutions characteristic of Stuttgart, the great book shop and intellectual centre of Southern Germany, as is Leipsic that of Northern Germany.

VIII.—KINGDOM OF BAVARIA.

1.—EXTENT AND POPULATION OF THE KINGDOM.

Bavaria has a population about three times as large as Ontario. The population of Bavaria is 4,660,556, among whom are 3,280,489 Catholics, 1,271,128 Protestants, 56,072 Jews, and some 53,000 of other sects. All these communions live on friendly terms, and enjoy equal rights. The government never interferes in questions which relate to worship, but satisfies itself with exercising over all a kind and impartial protection.

2.—EDUCATIONAL STATE OF THE KINGDOM OF BAVARIA.

Bavaria possesses 1 Academy of Sciences, with three classes and 325 members, 1 Academy of Fine Arts, 3 Universities, 9 Lyceums, 3 Polytechnic Schools, 28 Gymnasiums and 88 Progymnasiums, called Latin Schools, 1 Central School of Agriculture, 27 Schools of Arts and Trades and Rural Economy, 1 School of Forests, 4 Schools of Agriculture, 1 School of Roads and Bridges, one Central School of Rural Economy, 1 School of Gardening, 1 School of Mechanic Arts, 3 Institutes for the Blind, 261 Schools of Drawing, which are attended by 8,895 boys and 1,078 girls, and which have 247 masters, and 19 mistresses; 10 Schools for Deaf Mutes, 10 Normal Schools, 7,113 Primary Schools, (of which 4,810 are Catholic, 2,150 are Protestant, 153 Jewish,) which contain 463,501 boys, and 482,774 girls and employ 8,622 masters and 315 mistresses; 141 Boarding Schools, containing 6,853 pupils, employing 872 masters and mistresses; 1,550 Industrial Schools, attended by 71,100 boys, and 58,028 girls, with 368 masters and 1,597 mistresses.

3.—CHARACTER OF THE BAVARIAN SCHOOL LAW.

Primary instruction being obligatory since 1856, all the children must punctually attend the German schools—the week day schools from 6 to 13, and Sunday Schools from 13 to 16 years of age, inclusive. It is only by exception, and after having special permission, that parents can educate their children at

home, or place them in a private institution ; but in both cases, the civil authority maintains and exercises its right of inspection or oversight. Besides, children educated at home, or in any private institution whatever, must assemble with children of the public school to pass a general and public examination every year, either in the Catholic or Protestant church. All, without distinction of sex, must, when they have accomplished their 16th year, demand a certificate of dismissal—the only authentic proof of having fulfilled the school obligation. But those who, not having successfully passed the public examination, have not the certificate of dismissal, must continue to attend the school.

According to the returns, the proportion of those who cannot read, write or count, is only about 5 per cent., and it is confidently predicted that before long that figure will be reduced to zero. The machinery for giving effect to the school system does not differ materially from that of the other German states already noticed. But as Munich may be regarded as the Athens of Germany in respect to the fine arts, there are more art schools and students in Bavaria than perhaps in any other German state.

IX.—KINGDOM OF SAXONY.

1.—EXTENT AND EDUCATIONAL STATE OF THE KINGDOM.

Before the recent war between Prussia and Austria, Saxony was an independent constitutional monarchy of 2,179,907 inhabitants ; of whom 41,363, or about one in fifty, were Catholics, the rest being Protestants. The population of Saxony was only about one-third larger than that of Ontario. It had, and still has, 1 Polytechnic School, 2 Academies of Fine Arts, 1 University, 1 School of Mines, 1 School of Forests, 1 Scientific Society, 1 Academy of Surgery, 1 Military School, 1 Superior School of Arts and Trades, 5 Schools of Architecture, 25 Schools to teach making lace, 4 Schools of Weaving, 1 School of Cadets, 1 School of Artillery, 25 Gymnasiums, 7 Real Schools, 5 Schools of Commerce, 9 Superior Normal Schools, 1 Normal School to train Professors of Gymnastics, 2 Establishments for Deaf Mutes, 1,956 Elementary Protestant Schools, 16 Catholic and 2 Jewish Schools. These Elementary Schools employ 3,589 teachers, and contain 331,854 pupils, of whom 164,519 are boys, and 167,335 are girls.

While, therefore, the population of the Kingdom of Saxony was (in 1865) one-third larger than that of Ontario, its number of Elementary Schools and pupils was one third less ; but its higher and special schools rank in number and character above anything which has been conceived among us, apart from its celebrated Gallery of Paintings at Dresden and its famous University of Leipsic.

By the Saxon school law of 1835, every child that enters upon his *sixth* year *must go to school*, and must attend it eight entire years without interruption. This is the *Schulzwang* (school obligation).

The general provisions of the school law are similar to those of Prussia, but less complicated and on a more liberal though smaller scale.

X.—EMPIRE OF AUSTRIA.

1.—EXTENT, POPULATION, AND NATIONALITIES OF AUSTRIA.

The Empire of Austria is, and was to a greater extent before her recent war with Prussia, an agglomeration of peoples—of Germans, Slaves, Italians, Magyars, Roumaines, Albanians, Greeks, Armenians, Jews, &c., &c.,—altogether consisting of 36,000,000 inhabitants, of whom 24,000,000 were Roman Catholics.

It is easy to conceive the difficulty of subjecting to a regular and uniform school regime, nationalities so diverse, some of which reluctantly accepted, and others absolutely refused, the boon of instruction from a power which had little sympathy with them and for which they had no affection.

The number of Germans included in Austria proper, the Salzburg and the Tyrol, was only about twelve millions, that is about one-third of the population of the Empire, of which the Protestants formed only the ninth. In the German and Protestant elements—the two most active propagators of popular instruction—Austria was and is still wanting.

2.—EDUCATIONAL CONDITION OF THE EMPIRE.

In Austria there are reckoned 8 Universities, 55 Lyceums of Philosophy and Jurisprudence, 2,138 Gymnasiums, a great number of Professional, Secondary and Elementary Schools, or Schools of Manual Trades as well as Professions, and Primary Schools nearly equal in number to those of the parishes of the Empire. In the Metropolis, in Vienna, with its 34 faubourgs, or suburbs, there is one University more largely attended than any on the Continent, except the University of Paris; 1 Polytechnic Institute, reorganized just before the Austro-Prussian war; 1 School of Commerce, similar to the great Commercial School of Leipsic. There are 4 Gymnasiums; 1 School for Labourers and Apprentices; 4 Superior Real Schools; 19 Inferior Real Schools; 1 Institute for Deaf Mutes; 4 Normal Schools; 70 Superior Primary Schools (*Hauptschulen*); 7 Citizen Schools (*Burgerschulen*), recently founded by Protestants, and Boarding and Primary Schools not returned.

In the German Provinces of the Empire, containing a population of 12,000,000, which heretofore formed part of the German Confederation, there are 1

Academy of Science; 1 Academy of Painting; 1 Academy of Commerce and Navigation; 2 Superior Schools of Forests; 3 Academies of Commerce; 4 Universities; 4 Schools of the Fine Arts; 4 Schools of Surgery; 4 Polytechnic Institutes; 4 Institutes for the Blind; 10 Institutes for Deaf Mutes; 7 Schools of Rural Economy; 11 Normal Schools; 11 Cloistral Houses of Education; 19 Superior Real Schools; 87 Inferior Real Schools; 68 Gymnasiums; 11,158 Schools of the people, of which 10,855 are Catholic, and 303 are Protestant, taught by 17,853 masters and mistresses, of whom 17,477 are Catholic and 376 are Protestant; attended by 1,645,816 children, of whom 1,613,189 are Catholics and 32,677 are Protestants.

3.—CHARACTERISTICS OF THE AUSTRIAN SCHOOL LAW.

In Austria primary instruction is obligatory, and essentially at the expense of each Commune, as in other States of Germany. The penalty of neglect is perhaps more severe than in North Germany, for the authorities have the right of not only giving warnings, pronouncing censures, imposing fines, which add to the funds of the communes, and even inflicting several days imprisonment, but also to make the school certificate, or certificate of instruction, a necessary condition for being apprenticed or getting married.

No manufacturer, brewer, restaurateur, &c., can employ in his establishment children under ten years of age, and consequently subject to school obligation, unless they have already attended a school of the people one year; and those who employ children of ten years of age must send them to the evening school.

In all parts of the Empire the principles of school law are the same, and similar to those of the north of Germany; school legislation the same, and the penalties of neglect also the same; but the results in different parts of the Empire are very different. In the northern and western parts of the Empire, bordering on Saxony, Prussia, other German States, and Switzerland, from 86 to 94 per cent. of children of legal school age attend the schools, as some send their children before the age required by law; but in the southern and eastern parts of the Empire the school attendance of children from 7 to 12 years of age is from 13 to 80 per cent.; the average school attendance of children from 7 to 12 years of age throughout the Empire being only 65 per cent.*

* The following table shows the comparative attendance of boys and girls from 7 to 12 years of age, inclusive, in the different provinces of the Austrian empire, the year before the recent war with Prussia:

	BOYS.	GIRLS.
In Buckowina.....	36 per Cent.	6 per Cent.
In Galicia.....	14 "	12 "
In Croatia.....	25 "	15 "
In Carniola.....	50 "	42 "
In Istria.....	52 "	36 "
In Hungary.....	55 "	47 "
In the Military Frontiers.....	56 "	31 "
In Venetia.....	59 "	10 "
In Transylvania.....	61 "	43 "
In Carinthia.....	81 "	62 "

4.—THE EDUCATIONAL POLICY OF AUSTRIA.

I have not the space, nor does it accord with the object of this report, to give a detailed account of the course of studies and the peculiar methods of teaching and management of the several Austrian schools, from the Primary School through the Citizen, High and Real Schools, Gymnasiums, &c., up to the Polytechnic Schools and Universities. I will simply translate from the Report (1865) of M. Baudouin, the French School Commissioner to Austria, a few remarks on the movements which were taking place in Austria, and the policy of the government before the war with Prussia:

“The affairs of 1859 brought numerous changes in the governmental system of Austria. The increasing financial deficits and fear of bankruptcy, the vigour of the military requisitions and measures, the religious vexations inflicted upon the Protestants and Jews, fruits of the concordat with Rome of 1855, the complete abolition of all liberty, even provincial and communal, had excited the most bitter discontent in all the provinces. The ministry was changed and M. de Schmerling, placed at the head of public instruction, partially opened to progress the gates of the Empire. The Protestants profited by it, and founded primary schools similar to those of the north.”

“The 18th of last February (1864) the Municipal Council of Vienna voted that there should be established in each of the eight parishes of the city a superior citizens' school (*Bürgerschule*) upon the model of those which exist in Northern Germany; and some months afterwards, a competent person was appointed to go and study the organization, regulations and methods of the principal Burger Schools of Prussia and Saxony.

“At length, the 2nd of June following, the professors of the municipal schools of Vienna, encouraged and supported by the heads of the principal families, met in assembly, and adopted an elaborate memorial to the supreme Council of Public Instruction in which they urged the government to ameliorate promptly popular instruction—

“1. By rendering instruction obligatory for all children from six to fifteen years of age inclusive.

“2. By founding in every commune of 1,000 souls a public school with eight classes, that is to say, a citizens' school (*Bürgerschule*).

“3. By enlarging the teaching body in the secondary schools.

“4. By creating *Realschulen* and *Hohere Bürgerschulen* (real and high citizen schools) in the towns of 10,000 souls.

	BOYS.	GIRLS.
In Styria.....	89 per cent.	81 per cent.
In Silesia.....	94 “	93 “
In Bohemia.....	97 “	95 “
In Upper Austria.....	98 “	98 “
In Salzburg.....	93 “	100 “
In Moravia.....	100 “	99 “
In Lower Austria.....	100 “	97 “
In the Tyrol.....	100 “	100 “

"5. By authorizing towns of less than 10,000 souls, to found real and high schools when they shall ask to establish them out of their own funds."

"The assembly claimed then for the Austrian monarchy the school regime of Prussia. The moment was not happily chosen, nevertheless the demand of the assembly was taken into consideration by the supreme council; and at this moment (1865,) the government is endeavouring to obtain the necessary resources to put the project into execution.

"Austria, while opening (1865) the door to progress and the exigencies of the times, is careful not to permit the entrance of enough of that ample instruction which inspires the desire of knowledge and investigation, which produces explorers and inventors in all pursuits. All that is necessary to train to the exercise of manual skill, of a trade, collections of products, of machines, of drawing, of sculpture, special courses, practical experiments, laboratories, is given liberally and with profusion. But that which might inspire the taste for liberal studies, awaken ideas, give birth to a spirit of enquiry, is always systematically refused, for fear of exciting the spirit of investigation and inspiring a desire for independence. It is the ancient system. It was yet possible when Austria was impenetrable and destitute of communications with other countries; it is so no more when with railroads and the press, Vienna is now but a day from Leipsic or Paris."*

5.—EDUCATIONAL EFFECTS OF THE RECENT WAR WITH PRUSSIA.

Since the war with Prussia, Austria having lost her military prestige and some of her provinces, has commenced a career of constitutional government and educational progress; she is breaking off the fetters which the concordat of 1855 rivetted upon all that was free, and noble and progressive in her dominions, and is entering upon a course which promises to place her among the freest and most prosperous states of the continent.

The Austro-Prussian war has afforded a vivid illustration of the power of education over ignorance, even in the battlefield—of the superiority of mental discipline to mental crudeness—of free thought and intellectual activity to intellectual enslavement and torpor. I last year asked a distinguished Prussian Minister of State, to what he primarily ascribed the superiority of Prussia over Austria in the recent war. His Excellency replied, that in his opinion "it was not in the men physically, or in military skill, or prowess, but in the sound and universal education of the Prussian soldiery, which combined in each Prussian soldier, the intelligence and discipline of an officer, and gave him a momentum equal to many of the uneducated and feeble minded enemy."

That which is true in the army and on the field of battle, is true in a much higher degree in all other relations and pursuits of life. Education, with the inspired Book of Divine truth and human liberty, makes the man, makes the country, makes the nation.

*Rapport, &c., pp. 326, 333, 341.

XI.—KINGDOM OF DENMARK.

1.—EXTENT AND POPULATION OF THE KINGDOM.

The population of Denmark in 1864 was 1,600,551, only about one fifteenth more than this Province; and, like Ontario, it is a purely agricultural country; four-tenths of the population being occupied in the cultivation of the land. There being no coal, and but little water power in the country, manufactures are limited in variety and extent. But education is widely diffused; it has been provided for by royal ordinances since 1539; but the present system of primary and secondary instruction dates from 1814. The established religion is Lutheran; but there is perfect religious toleration, and no citizen is required to contribute to the support of a form of worship to which he does not belong.

2.—PROVISIONS FOR EDUCATION IN THE KINGDOM.

1. Every parish must provide school teachers for the primary instruction of all the children within it. In the schools provision is made for teaching reading, writing, arithmetic, the Lutheran catechism, grammar, history and geography. There are eight Normal Schools for the training of teachers, including a three years' course of instruction, and teaching the Danish language, mathematics, natural sciences, writing, pedagogy, history, geography, gymnastics, drawing, and music. The Secondary Schools include upwards of 30 High or Grammar Schools, in which are taught Latin, Greek, French, German, Mathematics, Natural Sciences, Geography, History, &c., &c.; also about 30 Real Schools, or schools of practical knowledge, teaching many of the subjects of the Grammar Schools, and other subjects adopted to commerce and trade. There are also higher burgher, or citizen schools, and French schools, but these are mostly private.

3.—EDUCATIONAL STATE OF DENMARK.

There are two Universities for Danish students—one at Copenhagen, with 40 professors, and upwards of 1,000 students; and another at Kiel with about 30 professors and tutors, and some 400 students. The revenue of the former was \$72,000, and its library contained upwards of 100,000 volumes; the revenue of the latter was \$30,000, and its library contained 70,000 volumes.

5. There are also Polytechnic, Military, Naval, Medical, and Forest Schools, an Academy of the Fine Arts, a School for the Blind, an Institution for Deaf Mutes.

6. Instruction has long been so far compulsory, that no child could be confirmed in the Lutheran church without being able to read; and no child could be apprenticed, or could a person be employed, or married, without having been

confirmed. But by articles in the present constitution, attendance at school from the age of seven to fourteen is obligatory ; and education is given gratuitously in the public schools to children who cannot afford to pay for it. Education is universal among the poor as well as among the wealthy classes.

XII.—KINGDOM OF NORWAY AND SWEDEN.

1.—EXTENT, POPULATION AND CONDITION OF NORWAY.

Norway embraces a territory of 121,807 square miles, and contains a population (in 1860) of 1,423,734 inhabitants—almost the same as Ontario. It is essentially an agricultural and pastoral country. “In 1858 out of a total male population of 585,381—of whom 424,267 were above 10 years of age—309,000 were connected with agriculture, either as proprietors, farmers, or farm-servants.” The land is mostly owned by those who cultivate it ; but only about one hundredth part of the entire surface of the country is cultivated, or otherwise productive. Yet in such a country, so far north, with winters so long and severe, education is universally diffused, and scarcely a Norwegian can be found who has not a fair knowledge of reading, writing, arithmetic, Bible history, the Lutheran Catechism, and generally some acquaintance with grammar, geography and history.

2.—EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES IN NORWAY.

All the inhabitants are Lutherans, except some 230 Mormons. The parishes are required to maintain good school-houses, and pay the salaries of teachers, who live either in fixed residences, or move at stated periods from one place to another, sometimes itinerate from school to school, teaching part of the week in one school and part in another. There are upwards of sixteen hundred of these itinerating schools, with nearly 150,000 children, in the thinly peopled districts, where the people are too poor to support permanent schools—receiving little pecuniary aid from government. There are about 200 permanent country schools, with nearly 20,000 pupils, and some 60 schools for labourers, with about 7,000 pupils.

In all the large towns, there are citizen schools, in which, besides the usual elementary studies, Mathematics, English, French, German and Latin are taught. In Christiania are schools of Drawing and Architecture, a school of Commerce and Navigation. In Christiania and several of the large towns, there are Colleges preparatory to the University, which contains about 30 professors, and upwards of 700 students, and has a library of 50,000 volumes, a Botanic garden and museum, There is also an Institution for Deaf-Mutes at Drontheim.

Norway thus furnishes a striking proof that a cold, poor, sparsely settled country (not more populous than Ontario) can give an elementary education to all its youth, and establish and sustain higher institutions of learning.

3.—EXTENT, POPULATION AND EDUCATIONAL STATE OF SWEDEN.

The area of Sweden is 168,042 English square miles; and its population in 1861 was little more than twice that of Ontario—being 3,917,339.

It has two Universities—one at Upsala, with about 1,000 students; another at Lund, with about 500 students.

The Secondary schools are called 'Schools of Learning,' 'Gymnasia,' 'Apologist' schools. The schools of learning and gymnasia are both classical schools, the latter rather superior to the former, but both teaching, besides the elementary branches, Mathematics, Latin, Greek, German, and French, and the elements of Natural History. The "Apologist Schools" teach the same subjects as the Gymnasia, except the Greek and Latin classics. These schools are not closed against any child qualified to enter them, though the children of the highest classes are educated in them.

4.—PROVISIONS OF THE SWEDISH SCHOOL LAW.

Since 1684, the law required that no person should be admitted to confirmation (necessary to marriage) who could not satisfy the curate of his ability to read; but on enquiry instituted by a voluntary association in 1822, it was found that education had been much neglected; and a system was introduced in 1825, and matured in 1842, making it compulsory on every district to erect at least one school with an approved teacher. The parishes are divided into school districts, and in each district a school committee or board is elected, with a chairman, to manage the school. Nearly fifteen hundred of the schools are ambulatory, upwards of two thousand are stationary. In them are taught Religion, Geography, Grammar, Swedish and General History, Mathematics, Geometry, Natural History, Music and Gymnastics. "Each teacher is entitled to a minimum salary, consisting of sixteen barrels of corn, lodging, firewood, pasture food for one cow, and a small piece of land to cultivate for a garden. If the district cannot furnish this, the government makes a grant in aid."

All children between the ages of nine and fifteen must attend school, unless it can be shown that they receive instruction at home. It is said there is not in Sweden more than one person in every thousand who cannot read and write.

XIII.—KINGDOM OF ITALY.

NOTE.—The efforts of the government to establish a thorough system of elementary instruction in the Kingdom of Italy, are too recent to furnish anything very satisfactory or suggestive, and I think it needless to notice the systems of

public instruction existing in Spain or Portugal, though there are regular systems, of public instruction established in each, notwithstanding the absence of all religious liberty.

EDUCATION IN THE BRITISH ISLES.

XIV.—IRELAND.

1.—GENERAL INTRODUCTORY REMARKS.

The peculiarities of the history and systems of education in England, Ireland and Scotland, require separate notice of each. I will begin with Ireland, and then, after taking a brief retrospect of the history and progress of education in Scotland, I will give a sketch of the rise and progress of education in England, and the measures which have issued in the establishment of the present Privy Council Committee system of popular education, including England, Wales and Scotland. Of the character and operations of this system I will give a more particular account, and append the last Revised Code of Regulations, in order that all parties in Ontario may understand the whole English system of elementary education.

2.—HISTORICAL SKETCH OF EDUCATION IN IRELAND.

In my Annual School Report of Upper Canada for 1857, I gave a full account of the system of National Education in Ireland, extending over 133 pages. I gave the official documents, containing the authority and instructions under which the National Board in Dublin was constituted in 1831, the regulations adopted in regard to every part of the system, the kinds of schools aided, the conditions on which they are aided, the rules by which they are governed, the officers, expense and success of the whole system from 1831 to 1856, together with the evidence of various distinguished persons, given before Committees of the House of Commons, as to the character and working of the system, and the modifications which had been made in its mode of operations since its establishment. I also compared the system of National Education in Ireland with that in Upper Canada, showed wherein they differed, and what features of the Irish system we had selected and adapted to our purposes. It will therefore, be needless for me to review the Irish National System in this place, especially as it has not undergone any material modifications since 1856. I will only add a few remarks as to its present character and operations.

3.—ENGLISH AND IRISH EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS.

The system of elementary education in Ireland, like that in England, is one of Parliamentary grants, administered and controlled by a Central Board—that in

England, by a Committee of the Privy Council ; that in Ireland, by a Board of Commissioners, composed of distinguished Protestants and Roman Catholics, by whose *unanimous* consent all the regulations and all the text-books for the schools have been adopted.

The system of elementary schools in England is chiefly *denominational*, in which literary and religious instruction are combined ; but the National Board in Ireland, state in their last regulations, July, 1866, as they had stated in 1831, that " the object of the system of national education is to afford *combined* literary and moral, and *separate* religious instruction, to children of all persuasions, as far as possible, in the same school, upon the fundamental principle that no attempt shall be made to interfere with the peculiar religious tenets of any description of Christian pupils." A prominent feature of the regulations is providing to give effect to this principle of " combined literary and moral, and separate religious instruction." At the same time, it is stated, as " the earnest desire of Her Majesty's Government, and of the Commissioners, that the Clergy and Laity of the different religious denominations should co-operate in conducting the national schools."

4.—DENOMINATIONAL BIAS FOR AND AGAINST THE IRISH SYSTEM.

For many years the Clergy and Members of the Roman Catholic church very generally co-operated in the system, while a majority of the Protestants opposed it ; but in 1840, the Presbyterians gave in their adhesion to it, though most of the Clergy of the Established Church and the Wesleyans continued their opposition. until of late years. They are now generally acquiescing in the system, while the authorities of the Roman Catholic Church are strenuously opposing it.

But while the original non-denominational object of the system is still avowed, the great majority of the schools have become denominational. More than four-fifths of them are Roman Catholic ; the rest belong to the Church of England, Presbyterians and other Protestants.

5.—EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS OF IRELAND.

The whole number of schools reported in each province, December, 1866, was, in Ulster, 2,382 ; in Munster, 1,576 ; in Leinster, 1,466 ; in Connaught, 1,029 ; total, 6,453. The number of Protestant pupils was 171,279 ; of whom 152,412, or 89 per cent. attended mixed schools. The number of Roman Catholic pupils attending the schools was 738,794 ; but what proportion attended mixed schools is not stated. Total number of pupils attending the schools, 910,073. The *average* attendance of pupils for the year is set down at 321,901. As compared with the year 1865 there is an increase of 81 in the number of schools in operation in 1866, but a decrease of one-half per cent. in the number of pupils enrolled and one and a half per cent. in the average attendance of pupils.

6.—EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES IN IRELAND—PARLIAMENTARY AID.

The schools recognized and assisted by the Board, besides the Normal, Model and ordinary Literary Schools, are Agricultural Schools, School Farms, School Gardens, Industrial Schools, Convent Schools, Workhouse Schools, Schools attached to Prisons, Asylums, &c., Evening Schools. Workhouse Schools, 145—pupils, 19,065. Schools attached to prisons, 19; Lunatic Asylum Schools, 4; Convent and Monastic Schools, 138; Agricultural School Farms, 104, and 4 School Gardens.

There is one Normal School (in Dublin) for training teachers, twenty-five District and Minor Model Schools, attended by 2,969 children of the Church of England, 4,597 Roman Catholic children, and 2,985 children of Presbyterians, and 729 children of other persuasions.

There are 6 Head Inspectors of schools; 30 District Inspectors of ordinary schools; and 2 Inspectors of Agricultural schools.

The amount of aid granted by the National Board for books, requisites, and apparatus, at reduced prices, was £15,895; in free stocks of books, requisites and apparatus, £2,250; in premiums and other gratuities, £7,494; for teachers salaries £230,413; for teachers salaries from school fees, £39,135; from local endowments, £12,338; Total paid teachers, £281,886. Expense of the Dublin official establishment, £15,457 per annum; of the Normal Training School, with Model Schools, £14,654; of the Albert Model Farm and Gardens, £3,110; of District School Farms, £8,793; of District Model Schools £22,594; of Inspectors, £23,234. The annual amount of the parliamentary grant, £340,000 (varies a little); a larger sum than is provided by the French Legislature for the primary education of thirty-seven millions.

7.—OTHER EDUCATIONAL HELPS IN IRELAND.

The Church Education Society, instituted in 1839 for instructing its pupils in the principles of the Church of England, and supported wholly by voluntary contributions, has, according to its report for 1864, 1,504 schools, attended by 69,038 pupils, and supported at an expense of £45,160.

There are the following higher institutions: Trinity College, Dublin, with an endowment of £50,000 per annum—attended by 1,000 students; Queen's Colleges at Belfast, Cork and Galway, of Queen's University, attended by 835 students—aided by Parliamentary grant of £7,522 (including £2,372 to Queen's University); and several other Colleges and Academies, Medical and other endowed schools, besides Academies of Arts.

To Ireland we are specially indebted for three important elements of our school system; also for the first and excellent Master of our Upper Canada Normal School; for the first and present most accomplished President of University College; for some of our most able public men, in both Church and State; and for not a few of our most enterprising and successful men of business in different departments of active life.

XV.—SCOTLAND.

1.—HISTORICAL SKETCH OF EDUCATION IN SCOTLAND.

Elementary school instruction commenced in Scotland by the establishment of a *compulsory system of education*, and the enjoined co-operation of the clergy; while in England it was left to the voluntarism of the landed proprietors and clergy. In Scotland, the masses of the people were instructed, in England they were left in ignorance. The system of *parochial schools*, which have long been the glory of Scotland, was founded in 1494 by the Scottish Parliament, which enacted that the barons and substantial freeholders throughout the realm should send their children to school from 6 to 9 years of age, and then to other seminaries to be instructed in the laws, that they might be qualified for the duties of Sheriffs and other civil offices. It was also enacted that any one who neglected this duty should be subject to a penalty of £20. Sixty-six years afterwards, in 1560, John Knox and his compeers presented to the nobility the "First Book of Discipline," in which they employ the following memorable language:—

"Seeing that God has determined that his kirk here on earth shall be taught, not by angels, but by men, and seeing that men are born ignorant of God and of godliness; and seeing also that He ceaseth to illuminate men miraculously, of necessity it is that your honors be most careful for the virtuous education and godly bringing up of the youth of this realm. For, as they must succeed to us, so we ought to be careful that they have knowledge and erudition to profit and comfort that which ought to be most dear to us, to wit, the kirk and spouse of our Lord Jesus Christ. Of necessity, therefore, we judge it, that every several kirk shall have one schoolmaster appointed; such a one, at least, as is able to teach grammar and the Latin tongue, if the town be of any reputation. And further, we think it expedient that in every notable town, there should be erected a *college*, in which the arts at least of rhetoric and logic, together with the tongues, be read by sufficient masters, for whom honest stipends must be paid; as also that provision be made for these that are poor, and not able by themselves or their friends, to be sustained at letters."

1.—ORIGINAL EDUCATIONAL ACT FOR SCOTLAND—ITS EFFECT.

The Privy Council of Scotland issued an order in 1615 empowering the bishops along with the majority of the landlords or heritors, to establish a school in every parish, and assess the lands for that purpose. This order was confirmed by Act of the Scottish Parliament in 1633, and under its authority schools were established in the more cultivated of the lowland districts. But this provision was far from adequate to provide elementary instruction for the whole realm. It was proposed to accomplish this by the famous Act of 1696, the preamble of which states, that "Our Sovereign Lord, considering how prejudicial the want

of schools in many places has been, and how beneficial the establishing and settling thereof will be to this Church and Kingdom, therefore His Majesty, with the advice and consent," &c. This Act ordered that a school should be established in every parish; that the landlords should build a school-house and dwelling-house for the use of the master, and should pay him a salary, exclusive of the fees of pupils, of not less than £5 11s. 1d. per annum, and not more than £11 2s. 6d. The Act also provided that the landlords and minister of the parish should appoint the schoolmaster, and fix the fees to be paid by pupils; that the Presbyteries should exercise a general supervision of the schools and have the sole power of censuring, suspending and dismissing the master.

Previously to the passing of this Act Scotland had suffered greatly from misgovernment and commotions, and religious persecutions, especially under Charles II and James II.; but she rose so rapidly from these distressing and demoralizing calamities, that in the autumn assizes of 1757 not one person was found guilty of capital crime throughout the whole country. Very few beggars have ever been seen in Scotland, and there has never been an assessment imposed for the support of the poor, except in some large towns and counties adjoining England. Doubtless the abolition of hereditary jurisdictions by the Act of 1748, and the establishment of a system of cheap, speedy and impartial administration of justice has exerted a salutary influence on the social condition of Scotland, but it is chiefly to the parochial schools that she owes the elevation of the labouring classes.

2.—FURTHER EFFORTS TO PROMOTE EDUCATION IN SCOTLAND.

But from internal dissensions, the increase of population, (especially in many towns where a rapid expansion and even new creation of many branches of manufacture were taking place,) and an increased demand for educated labour, the parish schools languished in many places, and the provisions of the law were found insufficient to secure the establishment and efficient support of parish schools commensurate with the wants of the population, so much so that the General Assembly in 1802, issued an appeal containing the following declaration:—

"That parochial schoolmasters, by instilling into youth the principles of religion and morality, and solid and practical instruction, contribute to the improvement, order and success of people of all ranks: That from the decrease in the value of money, their emoluments have descended below the gains of a day labourer: That it has been found impossible to procure persons properly qualified to fill parochial schools: That the whole order is sinking into a state of depression hurtful to their usefulness: That it is desirable that some means be devised to hold forth inducements to men of good principles and talents to undertake the office of parochial schoolmasters."

This declaration of the General Assembly was accompanied with complaints to Parliament from all parts of Scotland, in consequence of which the famous Act of 1803 was passed, ordaining among other things:

"That in terms of the Act of 1696, a school shall be established, and a school-master appointed in every parish, the salary of the schoolmaster not to be less than three hundred marks (£16 13s. 4d.), or above four hundred (£22 4s. 5d.) That in large parishes, where one parochial school cannot be of any effectual benefit, it shall be competent for the heritors and minister to raise a salary of six hundred marks, (£33 6s. 8d.) and to divide the same among two or more schoolmasters, as circumstances may require. That in every parish, the heritors shall provide a schoolhouse, and a dwelling-house for the school-master, together with a piece of ground for a garden, the dwelling-house to consist of not more than two apartments, and the piece of ground to contain not less than one-fourth of a Scot's acre; except in parishes where the salary has been raised to six hundred marks, in which case the heritors shall be exempted from providing schoolhouses, dwelling-houses and gardens. That the foregoing sums shall continue to be the salaries of parochial schoolmasters till the end of twenty-five years, when they shall be raised to the average value of not less than one chaldre (chaldron) and a half of oatmeal, and not more than two chalders (72 bushels); except in parishes where the salaries are divided among two or more schoolmasters, in which case the whole sum so divided shall be raised to the value of three chalders; and so *toties quoties* at the end of every twenty-five years, unless altered by Parliament. That none of the provisions of this Act shall apply to parishes which consist of a royal burgh, or part of a royal burgh. That the power of electing schoolmasters shall continue with the heritors and minister, a majority of whom shall also determine what branches of education are most necessary and important for the parish, and shall from time to time fix the school-fees as they shall deem expedient. That the Presbyteries of the Church shall judge whether candidates for schools possess the necessary qualifications, shall continue to superintend parochial schools, and shall be sole judges in all charges against schoolmasters, without appeal or review."

3.—EARLY SUPERIORITY OF THE SCOTTISH SYSTEM OF EDUCATION.

Such was the system of parochial schools in Scotland at the commencement of the present century. It is seen, that the education of the lower, as well as higher classes of the population has been held from the period of the Reformation, as a national interest and duty—a principle which has not been recognized by the British Parliament, for England, until within the last thirty years, and then very partially. It is also to be observed, that landed property in Scotland has been held liable to local taxation for the education of all the children of the locality or parish—a principle which is, at this moment, a subject of warm discussion and strong agitation in England. It is furthermore, worthy of remark, that the whole system of local self and elective government in school management and support, has been in operation in Scotland for nearly two centuries. The existence of the school was not left to chance, or to charity, but was a matter of acknowledged public necessity and duty; the school-house, and dwelling-house of the teacher were as much an assessment charge on property as a public road, or prison; the salary of the teacher was not permitted by law to fall below a comfort-

able maintenance according to the standard of living in the country parishes. Another peculiar excellence of the Scottish system hitherto has been, as expressed by James Cowan, Esq., in his statement, 1866, to the Royal Commissioners "that in the rural districts and small towns, the children of all classes have been educated together, and boys of talent from the very humblest classes have had the way of advancement opened to the learned professions, of which professions many of them have afterwards proved the most distinguished ornaments." These facts go far to account for the intellectual and moral development of Scotland; for the characteristic self-reliance and intelligence of the Scottish people; for the marvellous culture and productions of a country with a comparatively barren soil and severe climate; for the vast influence of that part of the empire so much beyond the proportion of its population and physical resources.

4.—OTHER EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES IN SCOTLAND.

There is a considerable number of endowed schools in Scotland,—founded by the pious liberality of past ages, and giving a liberal Grammar School education—at the head of which, perhaps, stands the Edinburgh High School; there are the several Universities and Colleges at Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, St. Andrews, &c., &c., (aided by a Parliamentary grant of £19,485 per annum)—which have sent forth successive generations of men who have increased the wealth of every department of science and literature, have adorned every profession, added largely to the glory of the Empire, and conferred upon it imperishable benefits.

5.—PRESENT EDUCATIONAL STATE OF SCOTLAND.

The voluntary and educational associations with which the present century opened, exerted a salutary influence in Scotland, and did much there, as in England, to improve the methods of school teaching and management, which resulted in the establishment of Normal Schools for the regular training of teachers, in much more enlightened and enlarged views of the dignity and importance of the teacher's profession, and of the apparatus and instrumentalities of school instruction.

The statistical tables and statements contained in my account of education in England, (pp. 111, 112,) include the present school statistics of Scotland, and the *Revised Code* of the Privy Council Committee of Education, also subjoined, applies to Scotland equally with England.

The great social changes which have taken place in Scotland during the last half century, the religious divisions, the progress of religious and political liberty, the growing numbers and power of the labouring classes, the increased demands for educated labour, the advancement of art, science and general knowledge, all render the old parochial Scottish schools utterly inadequate to supply the wants of society and meet the demands of the age. The Privy Council system offers assistance only to those who can help themselves, and are intelligent enough to do so; while it leaves wholly unaided those districts which most

need assistance. The Highland parishes and the poor districts, even in large towns, are wholly unreached by this system of Parliamentary grants. The educational deficiency and destitution in many of the towns and poorer parishes are matters of deep regret and loud complaint; and the best minds in Scotland, like those in England, are at this moment earnestly engaged in efforts to devise a more comprehensive, practical, and truly national system of education, free from the acknowledged defects and partiality of the present parochial and Privy Council systems, adequate to the requirements of the poorer districts and classes, and adapted to the existing institutions and state of society.

XVI.—ENGLAND,

Including Scotland, under the Privy Council Committee System of Elementary Education.

1.—HISTORICAL SKETCH OF EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

School education in England is contemporaneous with the introduction of Christianity; and for centuries the schools which existed,—and they were only of the most elementary character—were found in connection with the Cathedrals and Monasteries. But these were mostly swept away by the Danish invasion; so that King Alfred, about 880, invited learned prelates from abroad to establish schools for his own subjects; and for that purpose he set apart one-ninth of his own revenue. Thus to the zeal and benevolence of good King Alfred, existing educational institutions in England owe their origin; but for centuries they were of the most elementary character, and were confined to those who were destined for the service of Church and State. There was the “song scole,” where poor boys were taught to chant, and the “lecture scole,” where young priests were taught to read the services of the Church; yet such was the origin of some of the most famous existing educational establishments in England. Sampson, Abbot of St. Edmunds, once a poor boy, founded, in 1198, the school at St. Edmunds for forty boys. Lanfranc and Anselm, Archbishops of Canterbury, had both been school teachers, and both founded schools. Joffrid, Abbot of Croyland, who had been educated at Orleans, thence procured teachers, and established them at Cheltenham in 1110—the traditional origin of the famous University of Cambridge. William of Wykeham, Bishop of Winchester, to aid the education of “poor young men for the Church,” for the support and exaltation of the Christian faith and the improvement of the liberal arts, founded a College at Oxford in 1382, and its nursery at Winchester in 1387—known as Winchester College. But these institutions were confined chiefly to the Clergy; the mass of the nation was left in ignorance; and few even of the nobility were educated. The simple ability to read was considered characteristic of the

Clergy, and secured in criminal cases the *privilegium clericale*—the “benefit of clergy.” The Paston Letters record a case which occurred in 1464. Thomas Gurney employed his servant to slay “my Lord of Norwich’s cousin.” They were both tried and convicted of the crime. Thomas Gurney “pleaded his clergy,” as he could read, and was admitted to mercy as a “Clerk Convict;” but the less guilty servant, being unable to read, was hanged. The noble rank of Thomas Gurney was not, however, a guarantee of a knowledge of letters. Many noblemen of the highest rank affected to despise knowledge as common, and therefore beneath their dignity, especially after the invention of printing rendered the ability to read more common than in the days of manuscripts. As late as the first year of Edward VI., it was assumed not only that a peer of the realm might be convicted of felony, but that he might not be able to read, so as to claim “benefit of clergy.” An Act of Parliament was passed to meet such cases. It was enacted “that any Lord of Parliament claiming the benefit of this Act (1st Edward VI., Cap. 12,) ‘*though he cannot read,*’ without any burning in the hand, loss of inheritance, or corruption of his blood, shall be judged, deemed taken, and used, for the first time only, to all intents, constructions and purposes, as Clerk Convict.” The enactment of such a provision indicates the condition of the highest society in England. To how great an extent the nobility were unfitted, through ignorance, for high offices in the State at the time of the Reformation, may be inferred from Latimer’s “Sermon of the Plough,” preached at St. Paul’s, London, January 18, 1548, in which he says—“Why are not the noblemen and young gentlemen of England so brought up in the knowledge of God, and in learning, that they may be able to execute offices in the Commonwealth? Why are they not sent to schools that they may learn? Or why are they not sent to the Universities that they may be able to do the King service when they come of age? And if the nobility be well trained in godly learning, the people would follow the same example. For truly, such as the noblemen be, such will the people be.—Therefore for the love of God appoint teachers and schoolmasters, you that have charge of youth, and give the teachers stipends worthy their pains, that they may bring them up in Grammar, in Logic, in Rhetoric, in Philosophy, in Civil Law, and in that which I cannot leave unspoken of, the word of God.”

It is therefore to the period of the Reformation that we must look for the commencement of anything like general education even among the nobility and gentry, as also of the diffusion of the elements of civil and religious liberty throughout the nation. Though a large part of the property and funds of the Monasteries suppressed by Henry VIII., was seized by rapacious courtiers, yet a considerable portion was reserved and applied by good King Edward VI., to found no less than 21 Grammar Schools; some of which still exist, and are among the most flourishing institutions in England. The example of the King was followed by some of his successors, and many pious and benevolent persons; so that during the following century and a half, a large number of free Grammar Schools were established for the instruction of poor children in the learned languages. From these establishments, often of humble appearance

and with stinted means, have issued a series of the most illustrious names which have adorned the annals of English history. According to the Digests of Reports made by the Commissioners to enquire into Charities, presented to Parliament in 1842, the annual income of the Grammar Schools of England and Wales amounted to £152,047 sterling, irrespective of the income of some schools exempted from the enquiry.

Still no idea whatever of educating the masses of the people, or of educating any considerable portion of them in the subjects of common life, seems to have been entertained in any quarter. But about the time of the Revolution of 1688, the commercial classes in England had acquired, and were rapidly increasing in wealth and importance. Many of them had pushed their way to fortune without the advantages of education. They saw that schools in which nothing but Latin and Greek, with religious instruction, were taught, were not adapted to a life of trade and commerce. Many of these, by will, established and endowed schools for a certain number of poor boys, to be clothed, and taught Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic. In almost every town in England, one or more of these free schools may be seen; and some of the most enterprising and distinguished men of the present and past ages in England, point to these free charity schools as their intellectual birth-place, and have largely added to their number and resources as thank-offerings for benefits received. The annual income of these schools, designated in the Digests of the Commissioners above referred to, as "Schools not Classical," is reported as £141,385 sterling. The total income of *endowed charities for education in England and Wales*, embracing both the classical and non-classical schools, and including an addition of £19,112 for general educational purposes, is stated as £312,545. The number of schools is about 4,000, the number of pupils, 150,000.

Referring to these endowed Grammar and Free Schools, an American writer has justly observed,—“They have kept alive the liberal studies which have nourished a race of Divines, Lawyers, Physicians and Statesmen that may challenge comparison with those of any nation. They have opened the gates of the higher employments to industry and talent, unsupported by rank and riches. They have mitigated the inequalities of society. They have ploughed up the subsoil of poverty to make the surface earth stronger and richer. What the grammar schools have done for the higher and middle classes, the free schools have done for the lower in a different measure. They were the prizes for the poor boy, who had no ambition, perhaps no talent, for the struggles of the scholar; they taught him what, amongst the wholly untaught, would give him a distinction, and a preference in his worldly race—and he was unenvied by the less fortunate, because they knew that there was no absolute bar to their children and their kindred running the same race.”

It may be well here to note briefly the principal of those grammar schools which have contributed so pre-eminently to the education of the higher classes in England, and then the Universities of which the grammar schools are feeders—the two classes of institutions rendering England the first of nations as to the

education of its nobility and gentry. But it is worthy of remark, that several of the most celebrated grammar schools were not only founded by men in humble life, but nearly all of them were founded for the education of poor and meritorious youth, to very few of whom are they now accessible.

2.—GREAT PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND ENDOWED GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

1. *Eton College*.—This College is the most celebrated of all the Public Schools, was founded by Henry VI., A. D. 1440, by the name of "The Blessed Marie College of Etone, besides Wyndsore." *Visitor* for final appeal, the Archbishop of Canterbury. *Object*—The scholars are of two kinds (a) King's Scholars, so called in consequence of the wish of George III, who are eligible from 8 to 15 years of age, the statutable qualification being that they be "poor and indigent," and (b) the independent scholar, or *oppidant*, whose education averages from £150 to £200 per annum, for each boy.

2. *Winchester College*.—*Founder*—William of Wykeham, A. D. 1393. *Visitor*—the Bishop of Winchester, Warden and 10 Fellows. *Object*—to instruct diligently in grammatical learning poor scholars. *Free Scholars*, 75 are provided with board and lodging, but are subject to an annual payment of £19 13s. 6d. Doctor Moberly, the esteemed, Head Master since 1835, resigned at christmas, 1866.

3. *Harrow School*.—*Founder*—John Lyon, a yeoman of the parish in 1571. *Object*—the founders conveyed property "to six trustees" for the endowment of a schoolmaster and an usher, the gratuitous instruction of the children of the parish, and for the endowment of four door Exhibitioners for the two Universities. Permission was given to receive foreigners at the stipend the master could get. *Endowment*—£50. *Scholarships and Fellowships*—Lyon's exhibition of £30 for 4 years to either University; Sayer's two exhibitions of £52 10 for 4 years to Caius College, Cambridge; Nield's two exhibitions of £30 for 3 years to any College of Oxford; Gregory's exhibition of £100 for 4 years to either University; Earl Spencer's exhibition of £30 to either University.

4. *Westminster School*.—*Founder*—Queen Elizabeth in 1560. *Patron* or *Trustee*—Dean and Chapter of Westminster. *Free Scholars*—The boys on the foundation, and the "town" boys are on the same footing as four bishop's boys. There are Studentships at Oxford and Cambridge.

5. *The Charter House School*.—*Founder*—Thomas Sutton, Esq., May 9th, 1611. *Patrons* or *Trustees*—seventeen Governors. "The endowments of this noble foundation produce a rental of more than £22,000." *Free Scholars*—Those on the foundation are of two classes—pensioner and scholar—both nominated in rotation by the governors. There are exhibitions from £80 to £100 per annum, each for 5 years at either University, and donations of £100.

6. *Rugby School*.—*Founder*, Lawrence Sheriffe, a grocer in London, in 1567. *Visitor* the Lord High Chancellor. *Endowment*.—Originally designed only for the benefit of the Town of Rugby and its neighbourhood. Parents who have resided in Rugby two years, or at any place in the County of Warwick within

10 miles of it, or even in the adjacent Counties of Leicester and Northampton to the distance of 5 miles from it, are privileged to send their sons to be educated at the school without paying anything whatever for their instruction. There are exhibitions of £60 a year at any College of either University.

7. *St. Paul's School*.—*Founder*, Dr. John Colet, Dean of St. Paul's, A.D., 1512. *Patrons or Trustees*.—The Mercer's Company. *Object*.—Not only natives of the City, but those born in any other part of the Kingdom, and even those who are foreigners “*of all nations and countries*” are capable of being partakers of its privileges. *Endowment*.—£5,000. *Free Scholars*.—Colet limited the number of boys to 153, in allusion to that of the fishes caught by St. Peter. There are nine exhibitions of £50 each at any College, and nine of £100 at Trinity College, Cambridge.

8. *Merchant Tailors' School*.—*Founders and Patrons*, Merchant Tailors' College in 1561; *Unendowed*. Has six Exhibitions of £50 each.

9. *Shrewsbury School*.—*Founder*, Edward VI. in 1551; *Patrons, Masters and Fellows* of St. John's College, Cambridge. *Endowment*, £2,000. *Free Scholars*.—“The school is open without limitation to the sons of burgesses of the Town of Shrewsbury, free of expense. There are twenty-eight Exhibitions of about £40 each.

10. *Christ's Hospital*.—*Founder*, Edward VI. in 1552; *Patrons or Trustees*, Lord Mayor and Aldermen of London; *object*, education of “poor children.” 400 orphans were first admitted; they were clothed in russet, which was soon afterwards changed for the dress still worn. In 1672, Charles II. founded a Mathematical School for the instruction of 40 boys in navigation. *Endowment*, above £40,000. “The children are taught, lodged and clothed without a shilling's expense to the parents, and provided with all the books for which they have occasion, and with such as are bound to trade an apprentice fee is paid.” Grecianships at Oxford, and Cambridge.

11. *Manchester School*.—*Founder*, Hugh Oldham, Bishop of Exeter 1510; *Visitor*, the Dean of Manchester; *Endowment*, £4,408. There are exhibitions to Brasenose College, Oxford and St. John's, Cambridge.

12. *Birmingham School*.—*Founder*, Edward VI., 1552; *Visitors*, the Lord Chancellor and the Bishop of Worcester; *Endowment*, above £10,000. *Free Scholars*, Sons of inhabitants free; qualifications, 8 years of age, and ability to read and write English. About 100 nominations are open to public competition. Children of non-inhabitants pay from £15 to £20 per annum. There are ten exhibitions, each of £50, at either Oxford or Cambridge, tenable for 4 years; two scholarships of £50, for 4 years at Brasenose College.

Other noted Endowed Grammar Schools are those of Bromsgrove, Bedford Bury St. Edmund's, Highgate, Guernsey, Ipswich, Leeds, Marlborough, Repton, Sherburn, Southwark, &c.

3.—UNIVERSITIES.

1. The *University of Oxford* was the seat of a school of learning as early as the reign of Edward the Confessor. In the year 1201 (3rd year of King John) it is styled a University, having then, according to Anthony A'Wood, 3,000 students. Its Charter was granted by King John; but the act of incorporation by which its privileges were ultimately defined was the statute 13th Elizabeth, passed in 1570; and the statutes of the University were reduced to a code in 1638, under the chancellorship of the famous Archbishop Laud. The colleges at Oxford are distinct from the University, though represented in it, and subject to its statutes, which relate to matters of study, &c., common to all the colleges. There are 19 Colleges and 5 Halls (doing collegiate work) in the University; and each College or Hall has its own endowment and regulations. According to the report of the English University Commissioners, by Heywood, the smallest number of students entering any one college was 1; the largest number (in New College) was 58; the average number of students entering each of the 24 colleges and halls was 18. The aggregate number of students entering all the Colleges and Halls was 440. It is no part of the English University system that a great multitude of students should herd together in one college only; but a noble and healthy emulation is maintained among a large number of independently and variously endowed colleges. The *ordinary College account* at Oxford including both the University and College fees of all kinds,—boarding, lodging washing, coals, and servants,—seldom exceeds £100 sterling per annum; but students, for clothes, travelling, amusements, and various incidentals, rarely spend less than from £200 to £300 per annum, and sometimes more.

2. The *University of Cambridge*.—The term University was first applied to Cambridge as early as 1227. Hallam thinks it was incorporated in 1229, the 15th of Henry III. The earliest formal Charter bears date, the 20th year of Edward I.; but, like Oxford, its corporate privileges were finally defined by an Act passed in the 13th of Elizabeth. In the Cambridge University there are 16 Colleges, the aggregate annual admission of students at which, according to the Report above referred to, was 499. The smallest number of students entering any one College the last year reported was 4; the largest (at Trinity) was 151—average number of students entering each College was 31. Each College at Cambridge, as at Oxford, has its own endowment—some much more wealthy than others. The necessary average expense of Collegiate education at Cambridge is about the same as at Oxford.

3. The *University of Durham* was founded by Act of Parliament in 1833, and incorporated by Royal Charter in 1837.

4. The *University of London*, founded in 1837, is simply a Senatorial Body prescribing courses of Collegiate studies, directing examinations, and conferring degrees in Arts, Law and Medicine. University College, and King's College, London, and upwards of 50 Colleges and institutions, most of them denominational, throughout the United Kingdom, are affiliated to it, and their students receive their degrees from it.

4.—VOLUNTARY EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS AND AGENCIES.

With the present century commenced the era of voluntary associations and the wider diffusion of popular education in England. Yet the advocacy and efforts put forth seemed to be directed rather to the amelioration of the condition of the poor, than to the universal education of the people. Prior to that period, the subject had been mooted by individuals in advance of their times. Sir Thomas More, in his "Utopia," professedly intended to describe "the best state of a public weal," had hinted that "all in their childhood be instructed;" the author of the "Wealth of Nations," had, in 1766, advocated the extension of the most essential parts of education to "the whole body of the people;" but these were solitary sentiments in the works which contained them, and the authors stood almost alone in the expression of such sentiments. The earliest voluntary agency of popular education in England was the Church of England "Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge," founded in 1698 to aid in founding Charity Schools and in publishing and circulating useful books at a low price; which, as early as 1741, had aided in founding more than 2,000 Church Charity Schools, and which has published several hundred millions of books and tracts. In 1811 its School work was transferred to the National Society, which received a Royal Charter in 1817. The Religious Tract Society, founded in 1799, soon became, as it has ever since continued, a potent agent in spreading knowledge of the best kind. The Sunday School agency gave a powerful impulse not only to the religious instruction, but to the primary education of the lowest classes. The new methods of teaching introduced by Bell and Lancaster awakened much attention to the subject of educating the masses; and the British and Foreign School Society, commenced a work of usefulness which they have been nobly pursuing to the present time. The "Benevolent Evening School Society" which established the first *evening school* for the gratuitous instruction of the sons of the labouring poor, in Bristol in 1806, accomplished much good, and prepared the way for the gradual extension of, and became merged into, the system of Mechanics' Institutes, through whose instrumentality upwards of 250,000 adult persons in England, Ireland and Scotland have learned to read. Among the latest but not the least potent voluntary agencies for the education of the poor is the system of Ragged Schools, commenced in 1837.

But it were almost endless even to mention the various voluntary agencies and efforts devised and employed to instruct and elevate the lowest classes. It is, however, easy to see how far all these benevolent and diversified, though isolated efforts, fell short of a national organization and governmental system like that of Holland and Germany, for the education of the whole labouring population. Mr. Malthus, in his celebrated "Essay on Population," published in 1803, truly said: "We have lavished immense sums on the poor, which we have every reason to think have constantly tended to aggravate their misery. But in their education, and in the circulation of those important political truths that most nearly concern them, we have been miserably deficient. It is surely a great disgrace that the lower classes of the people in England should be left to a few Sunday Schools."

5.—HISTORICAL SKETCH OF PARLIAMENTARY PROCEEDINGS.

The question of educating the labouring classes was first introduced into Parliament, the present century, by Mr. Whitbread, who, in 1807, proposed a plan in the House of Commons for "The exaltation of the character of the Labourer," by the establishment of Parochial Schools. The measure was very moderate, limiting the amount of education to be given to the merest minimum, —two years' schooling between the ages of seven and fourteen. Even this proposed mitigation of the ignorance of the labouring classes was successfully opposed; some contending that it was monstrous to think of taxing the occupiers of land and houses in order that all the children of the country should be taught to read and write; others arguing that the proposed two years' schooling tended to give the labouring classes an education above their condition. Mr. Whitbread's bill was therefore not entertained.

This was the year after the establishment of the national system of education in Holland, which I have described in a former part of this report (page 36-6I), and which has been the means of rendering the labouring classes in Holland the best educated, and the most industrious in Europe, while the labouring classes in England are the least educated and the most ignorant, and multitudes of them vicious and degraded. Mr. Brougham (now Lord Brougham) was an early, and as he has long been, an earnest friend to the education of the poor. As early as 1808, he assisted at the organization of the British and Foreign School Society; in 1810 and 1812 he contributed able articles to the *Edinburgh Review* on the subject; and on the 21st of May, 1816 he moved in the House of Commons for the appointment of a Select Committee "to enquire into the state of education of the lower orders of the Metropolis." He entered upon the duties of the committee with such zeal and industry, that in less than a month, 19th June, he submitted a report, which was speedily followed by four additional reports, which exposed the educational destitution of the Metropolis, the inefficiency of the public schools, and the misapplications of charity and various educational funds. In 1818, the committee was revived with more extensive powers to enquire into the education of the lower orders throughout England, Wales and Scotland, and, by construction, into educational charities, including the Universities and Great Public Schools. The result was three folio volumes of statistics on the state of education throughout the whole Kingdom, and a plan for National Education, to be supported by the State,—proposing to include and improve the schools already established, and to harmonize the administration of the schools composed of children of all denominations with an admitted deference to the authority of the Church of England. The bills embodying this plan were introduced into Parliament in 1820, and created great excitement and much violent discussion between the different religious and political parties—so much so that the whole subject was postponed, and nearly fifteen years elapsed before its consideration was again resumed by parliament.

But Mr. Brougham was more successful in drawing attention to the abuses of educational charities. Successive Committees and Commissions were ap-

pointed to examine into them, until their reports filled 33 folio volumes, extending to 28,840 charities, and the work yet unfinished. The total value of the charities reported on was estimated in 1850 at *seventy-five million pounds sterling*, and the annual income at £1,209,395. By the publicity thus given to the management of these charities, the income of them has doubled, and is estimated as likely to amount to £4,000,000, or \$20,000,000 per annum—a vast contribution, under proper management, to the education of the people.

In 1833, on motion of Lord Kerry, another educational enquiry was undertaken into the existing means of education for the poorer classes, and an annual grant* of £20,000 or \$100,000 was voted by the House of Commons, on motion of Lord Althorp, for the building of school-houses for the poor in England and Wales, under the direction of the Lords of the Treasury—as a supplement and encouragement to the National (Church) Society, and the British and Foreign School Society. In the following year, 1834, another Committee was appointed by the Commons “to make enquiries into the present state of education in England and Wales, and into the application and effects of the grant made in the last session for the erection of school-houses, and to consider the expediency of further grants in aid of education.” This Committee reported the Minutes of evidence taken before them respecting schools in connection with the National Church, and British and Foreign School Societies, and the School systems of Prussia, France, Ireland, and Scotland, together with the views of distinguished educationists,—such as Lord Brougham, Doctor Julius, Professor Pillans, and others.

The following year, 1835, Lord Brougham brought the subject of national education before the House of Lords, by moving a series of resolutions, which he advocated with great earnestness and ability, but on which no action was taken. Again in 1836, Lord Brougham brought two bills into the House of Lords, revived and eloquently advocated them in 1837 and in 1838, but without success.

6.—LORD BROUGHAM’S WARNING TO THE LAWGIVERS OF ENGLAND.

The defeat of Lord Brougham’s efforts to establish a system of national education was followed by a published letter from him to the Duke of Bedford, in which his lordship advised the friends of a system of national education to unite in support of the contemplated Government measure to aid schools established by different religious denominations, as the only practicable scheme which there was any chance of carrying. This is the origin of the present system of Parliamentary grants to schools of different religious denominations in England for the education of the labouring classes. Lord Brougham, in his letter to the Duke of Bedford, denounces in words of burning indignation, the “sectarian animosity” and “factious rage” which had defeated every scheme

* A similar grant of £10,000 was made for the same purpose in Scotland. See pp. under the head of Scotland. The sum of £4,328 had been granted in 1831 to the Commissioners of National Education in Ireland—the commencement of the Irish National system. See page , under the head of Ireland.

and proposal for an independent system of National education. But he consoles himself with the reflection,—"The ignorance of the people, the origin of all the worst ills that prey upon our social system, has become at length the object of Legislative regard, and I defy the constituted authorities of this free country to delay much longer in applying the appropriate cure by eradicating a disease as easily cured as it is fatal if neglected."

His Lordship concludes in the following earnest words of warning and appeal—words to which subsequent events and the present advanced age* of the noble writer give a peculiar interest, and which are not without their moral in Canada as well as in England:

"Lawgivers of England! I charge ye, have a care! Be well assured, that the contempt lavished for centuries upon the cabals of Constantinople, where the Council disputed on a text, while the enemy, the derider of all their texts, was thundering at the gates, will be as a token of respect compared with the loud shout of universal scorn which all mankind in all ages will send up against you, if you stand still and suffer a far deadlier foe than the Turcoman,—suffer the parent of all evil, all falsehood, all hypocrisy, all discharity, all self-seeking,—him who covers over with pretexts of conscience the pitfalls for the souls on which he preys,—to stalk about the fold, lay waste its inmates—if you stand still and make no head against him, upon the vain pretext, to soothe your indolence, that your action is obstructed by religious cabals—upon the far more guilty speculation, that by playing a party game, you can turn the hatred of conflicting professors to your selfish purposes! Let us hope for better things. Let us hope it through His might and under His blessing who commanded the little children to be brought unto Him, and that none of any family of mankind should be forbidden; of Him who has promised the choicest gifts of His Father's Kingdom to those who in good earnest love their neighbours as themselves."

7.—PRIVY COUNCIL COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION.

In 1839, for the first time in the history of England, a Speech from the Throne recommended Parliament to do something for the "religious education of the poor;" and towards the close of the Session, Lord John Russell, in a letter to the President of the Privy Council, communicated the desire of the Queen, that five members of the Council, namely, himself, the Lord Privy Seal, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the Secretary for the Home Department, and the Master of the Mint, should form a Committee of Council on Education for the consideration of all matters affecting the education of the people.

This was the origin of the Privy Council Committee on Education—the body under whose sole authority all the regulations in respect to the education of the labouring classes and the distribution of the Parliamentary grants for education, have been made from 1839 to the present time. The Committee selected as its Secretary and chief officer an experienced and able educationist, in the person of Dr. James Philip Kay, now Sir James Kay Shuttleworth. Dr. Kay, as early

*While this report was passing through the press, the intelligence of Lord Brougham's death arrived.

as 1832, published an elaborate Essay on the "Moral and Physical Condition of the working classes employed in the Cotton Manufactories of Manchester." In 1836, as Assistant Poor Law Commissioner in the Norfolk and Suffolk district, he submitted to that Board a report on the evils of the system of apprenticeship education under the old Poor Law; and in 1838, he submitted a plan for the proper training of pauper children and on district schools,"—which was made the basis of a system for reorganizing and improving the management of this class of schools. In 1839, Dr. Kay was appointed to the Superintendence of the Metropolitan District, with the special charge to improve the schools in workhouses. To qualify himself better for a work so important, he visited and made himself acquainted with the best methods of school teaching and management as practised in Holland, Belgium, France, and Scotland; and, at large pecuniary sacrifice and by great labour, he planned and put into successful operation a training school for teachers at Battersea. Dr. Kay was therefore admirably qualified for the duties of Secretary to the Privy Council Committee of Education—an office the duties of which he discharged with great zeal and ability for ten years, and in which he laid the foundation of the present system of elementary education carried on under the authority of the Committee. In 1848, Dr. Kay received a legacy from a person by the name of Shuttleworth, whose name, by Royal permission, he assumed. In 1849, he resigned his office on account of shattered health, and was knighted by the Queen for his services in the cause of popular education—the first example of such a distinction for such services. Dr. Kay was succeeded as Secretary of the Committee of Council on Education by R. R. W. Lingen, Esq., A.M.,—a barrister, and a gentleman of excellent qualifications for the office, and who still continues to discharge its duties with great tact and ability.

The Committee of Council adopted and published a Code of Regulations analagous to our School Law and instructions, but subject to such modifications as the Committee might think proper to make from time to time. It was proposed to give aid on certain conditions; to erect school-houses; to support Elementary Schools for the labouring classes, and Normal Schools for the training of teachers and students attending them; to assist in procuring supplies of books, apparatus and school fittings at reduced prices; to provide for the inspection of the Normal and Elementary Schools; to augment the salaries of teachers, &c., &c. But no correct idea can be formed of this system without perusing the Code of Regulations according to which it is administered; and as it is desirable in reviewing and consolidating our own Canadian School System, to understand that which has been adopted in the Mother Country, I append to this historical statistical epitome the *Revised Code*, which, after various modifications, was adopted and published in 1867 for the management of Elementary Schools in England and Scotland.

In the meantime the nature and extent of the work carried on under this Code may be conceived to some extent from the following statistics.

The following table shows the amount of expenditure for the year ending March, 1866, and from 1839 to 1866, and for what objects :

(Table A.)—Classified according to object of Grant.

	FOR YEAR ENDED 31ST MARCH, 1866.	FROM 1839 TO 31ST MARCH, 1866.
1. In Annual Grants paid for 1865-6, in Scotland only, according to the Code of 1860, viz :—		
Grants in augmentation of the Salaries of Certificated Schoolmasters and Schoolmistresses.		
Grants to pay the stipends of Pupil-teachers and Graduates, to the Schoolmasters and Schoolmistresses instructing them.	£31,291 0 0	£982,742 0 9
Stipends to Assistant Teachers.	34,605 6 6	2,655,346 5 10
Stipends to Teachers in Night Schools.	1,510 0 0	66,139 15 0
Special allowance for Drawing.	322 4 11	10,671 5 7
Grants to Industrial Classes in connection with Elementary Day Schools.	196 3 4	9,745 9 8
2. Unexpired Pensions.	109 11 5	101,215 10 11
3. In Annual Grants to Elementary Schools in England and Wales, under the Revised Code, viz :—	685 0 0	7,265 11 8
For Day Scholars.	378,002 16 2	925,044 1 4
For Evening Scholars.	10,002 19 2	19,838 11 4
Towards building, enlarging and, furnishing of school premises.	21,040 11 4	1,608,100 15 1
5. In Annual Grants to Training Colleges.	69,934 14 2	1,046,443 4 8
6. Administration :		
For Inspection.	£49,458 15 10	
For Office in London.	20,047 8 0	
Contingencies of Office, viz :—		
Extra Copying.	£2,561 12 0	
Sundry Office Disbursements.	210 6 0	
Stamps on Pupil-Teacher's Agreements.	2,771 18 0	
Poundage on Post Office Orders.	384 10 0	
7. Discontinued :	2,367 12 6	
Capitation Grants, under the old Code, in England and Wales.		912,647 19 4
In Books, Maps, Diagrams and Scientific Apparatus.		473,946 19 2
Payments made from the vote for Public Education by the Treasury in 1843, 1850, 1853, 1854.		52,520 11 2
		11,604 9 0
The Grants formerly made to Industrial Schools are included in this amount.	£622,730 10 10	£8,883,272 10 6

The following Table shows the Expenditure according to the Denominations or religious parties who were the Recipients or Agents of it.

(Table B.)—Classified According to Denomination of Recipients.

	FOR YEAR ENDED 31ST MARCH, 1866.	FROM 1839 TO 31ST MARCH, 1866.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
On Schools connected with		
Church of England.....	351,498 6 7	5,272,659 11 10
British and Foreign School Society.....	58,623 1 1	792,754 6 9
On Wesleyan Schools.....	28,592 2 9	408,616 7 11
On Roman Catholic Schools, (England and Wales).....	26,083 14 9	318,525 7 10
On Parochial Union Schools.....	120 0 0	77,503 9 9
On Schools connected with		
(Established Church.....	46,464 14 4	570,663 16 2
Scotland { Free Church.....	29,297 0 5	434,063 10 3
Episcopal Church.....	4,019 6 0	48,878 14 2
On Roman Catholic Schools.....	3,002 0 7	26,568 2 8
Other Schools.....		189 14 10
Administration (as in Table A).....	75,030 4 4	912,646 19 4
Transferred in 1857 under head of Scientific Apparatus to account of Department of Science and Art, towards		1,500 0 0
the expense of establishing the Educational Division of the Museum at Kensington.....		
Payments made from the vote for Public Education by the Treasury in 1843, 1850, 1853 and 1854.....		11,604 9 0
Total.....	£622,730 10 10	£8,883,272 10 6

All Schools aided by Parliament are subject to Government Inspection. The following table shows the number of schools, and rooms or departments of schools in England, Wales, and Scotland, their denominations and income, and the sources of it:

Total number of Schools actually Inspected on account of Annual Grants between 1st September, 1865, and 31st August, 1866.

DENOMINATIONS.	Number of Departments in those Institutions in which Separate Teachers are Employed.					INCOME.																
	No. of Schools, & institutions held in separate buildings and separately managed.					Total.	From Endowment (England & Wales) or Heritors' Salary, Scotland.	From Voluntary Contributions	From School Pence.	From Government.	From other Sources.	Total.										
		Boys.	Girls.	Infants.	Mixed.								Evening.									
Schools connected with National Society or Church of England	5293	1778	1494	1243	3304	1125	8944	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.			
British, Wesleyan, and other Schools not connected with Church of England.....	1131	298	208	259	819	172	1756	4028	4	4	44137	14	0	89904	6	9	16906	1	10	228504	13	9
Roman Catholic Schools.....	270	112	97	94	138	111	552	495	11	8	14833	10	6	11781	18	4	3544	11	3	50496	6	1
Total.....	6694	2188	1799	1596	4261	1408	11252	36372	3	0	319239	16	1	368968	11	2	95191	0	7	1181412	5	9
Schools connected with Church of Scotland.....	1027	45	73	48	939	20	1125	18426	17	10	28417	7	6	48373	4	7						
Free Church Schools.....	453	19	25	39	437	11	531	423	19	0	13264	19	9	25559	15	5	4419	6	9	98626	16	8
Episcopal Schools.....	77	10	14	3	62	3	92	116	6	6	2655	18	7	3165	17	9	3424	7	11	42673	2	1
Roman Catholic Schools.....	52	13	10	7	36	13	79	25	8	6	2604	1	9	1669	15	11	764	2	3	5702	5	1
Total.....	1609	87	122	97	1474	47	1827	18992	11	10	46942	7	7	77768	13	8	163	4	7	4462	10	9
Total, Great Britain.....	8203	2275	1921	1693	5735	1455	13079	55364	14	10	366182	3	8	446737	4	10	8771	1	6	152474	14	7
																	103962	2	1	1333987	0	4

The following table shows the number of legally qualified teachers, assistant teachers, and pupil teachers, and their Denominations:—

SCHOOLS CONNECTED WITH	NUMBER OF CERTIFICATED TEACHERS.			NUMBER OF ASSISTANT TEACHERS.			NUMBER OF PUPIL-TEACHERS.		
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
National Society or Church of England.....	4228	3767	7995	359	387	746	2465	3876	6341
British and Foreign School Society.....	679	441	1120	88	60	148	728	712	1440
Wesleyan Methodist Conference.....	339	182	521	22	11	33	385	234	619
Roman Catholic Poor School Committee (in England and Wales).....	147	345	492	14	55	69	144	393	537
Total, England and Wales.....	6393	4735	10128	483	513	996	3722	5215	8937
Church of Scotland.....	893	390	1283	33	10	43	772	396	1168
Free Church in Scotland.....	463	154	617	17	1	18	440	193	633
Episcopal Church in Scotland.....	23	40	63	..	2	2	45	73	118
Roman Catholic Poor School Committee (in Scotland).....	44	44	88	1	1	2	53	62	115
Total, Scotland.....	1423	628	2051	51	14	65	1310	724	3034
Total, Great Britain.....	6816	5363	12179	534	527	1061	5032	5939	11971

TABLE showing the number of Certificated Teachers, number of Assistant Teachers, and number of Pupil-Teachers, employed in teaching on 31st December, 1866, classified denominationally:

8.—NORMAL SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

Normal Schools.—There are 48 Normal Schools to which Model or practising Schools are attached. The students remain in the Normal Schools about three years, and thus receive there the greater part of their education, and not their professional training only, as with us. The students there pay part of the expenses of their training. The Normal Schools are supported chiefly by Parliamentary Grants, but partly by local endowments, subscriptions, fees, collections and donations. The following are the denominations of the Normal Schools, with the number of students, the amount of the Annual Parliamentary Grant to each denomination of Normal Schools; the whole annual expense of each, and the whole amount of Parliamentary Grants to each class from 1839 to 1866;

1. *Church of England*, 28; male, 15; female, 13. Male students, 638; female students, 770. Annual Government Grant, £43,947; whole annual expense, £69,484. Amount of Parliamentary Grants since 1842, £704,177.

2. *British and Foreign School Society*, 3; male, 2; female, 1. Male students, 90; female students, 100. Annual Grant, £5,963; whole annual expense, £7,497. Amount of Government Grants since 1842, £78,052.

3. *Wesleyans*, 2 (or 1 male and 1 female department); male students, 66; female students, 62. Annual Grant, £4,203; whole annual expense, £6,037. Amount of Government Grants since 1852, £53,166.

4. *Home and Colonial School Society*, Female students, 140. Annual Grant, £4,266; whole annual expense, £5,493. Amount of Parliamentary Grants since 1839, £53,131.

5. *Roman Catholic*, 3; male, 1; female, 2. Male students, 29; female students, 73. Annual Grant, £3,226; whole expense, £4,783. Amount of Parliamentary Grants since 1852, £41,302.

6. *Church of Scotland*, 4 (or 2, with a male and female department in each); male students, 100; female students, 99. Annual Grant, £6,018; whole annual expense, £7,108. Amount of Parliamentary Grants since 1844, £104,253.

7. *Free Church of Scotland*, 4 (or 2 with male and female departments in each); male students, 99; female students, 130. Annual Grant, £6,690; whole annual expense, £8,924. Amount of Parliamentary Grants since 1849, £119,548.

8. *Episcopal Church of Scotland*, 2; male, 1; female, 1; Male students, 13; female students, 6. Annual Grant, £556. whole expense, £861. Amount of Parliamentary Grants since 1848, £5,346.

The whole amount granted by Government for the support of Normal Schools for 1866, was £74,873. The whole amount expended for their support during the year, was £102,693. The whole amount granted by Parliament in support of Normal Schools between the years 1839 and 1866, inclusive, was £1,206,229, or \$6,031,145.

The sums above mentioned are granted and expended in support of Normal Schools alone, and do not include the grants made to support the South Kensington School of Art and Science, and the elementary schools generally.

9.—OTHER SCHOOLS AND EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES.

School of Science and Art at South Kensington.—The premises for this Establishment were, at the instance of the late Prince Consort purchased, and the buildings partly erected out of the surplus of the funds of the first Universal Exhibition held in London in 1851. A very extensive Educational Museum has been established, and a School of Science and Art on a large scale, with branch Schools of Design in the principal cities and towns of the Kingdom, to the great improvement of practical art, and to the extension of a taste for the Fine Arts generally. The Parliamentary Grant made for this purpose, called the "Science and Art Department," amounted in 1865-6 to £161,841.

The Parliamentary Grant for Public Elementary Education, embracing the Normal Schools, but not including the Department of Science and Art, amounted in 1865-6, to the large sum of £693,078. Of this sum, the Church of England received about 82 per cent. or upwards of four fifths.

The number of Schools under inspection in 1866, was 13,586—increase of 6.36 on the preceding year—a very small increase indeed for such an immense expenditure. The number of pupils present at inspection was 1,287,604—increase 41,549. The *average* attendance was 1,082.055—increase 24,310.

It is clear from these returns, that the increase of the labouring classes must be far greater than the increased attendance at Schools, in a country where the births are reported to exceed the deaths, by one thousand per day.

10.—INSPECTION AND COURSE OF INSTRUCTION.

The system of Inspection costs £49,459 per annum. A new system has been introduced within the last three years. It is minute and thorough, and on its results depend the amount of grant to each school. There are six Standards of attainment prescribed in article 48 of the "Revised Code," as follows :

	STANDARD I.	STANDARD II.	STANDARD III.	STANDARD IV.	STANDARD V.	STANDARD VI.
Reading....	Narrative in monosyllables.	One of the narratives next in order after monosyllables in an elementary reading book used in the school.	A short paragraph from an elementary reading book used in the school.	A short paragraph from a more advanced reading book used in the school.	A few lines of poetry from a reading book used in the first class of the school.	A short ordinary paragraph in a newspaper, or other modern narrative.
Writing....	Form on black board or slate, from dictation, letters, capital and small manuscript.	Copy in manuscript character, a line of print.	A sentence from the same paragraph, slowly read once, and then dictated in single words.	A sentence slowly dictated once by a few words at a time, from the same book, but not from the paragraph read.	A sentence slowly dictated once by a few words at a time, from a reading book used in the first class of the school.	Another short ordinary paragraph in a newspaper, or other modern narrative slowly dictated once by a few words at a time.

	STANDARD I.	STANDARD II.	STANDARD III.	STANDARD IV.	STANDARD V.	STANDARD VI.
Arithmetic.	Forms on black board or slate, from dictation, figures up to 20; name at sight, figures up to 20; add and subtract figures up to 10; orally, from examples on black board.	A sum in simple addition or subtraction, and the multiplication table.	A sum in any simple rule as far as the short division (inclusive.)	A sum in compound rules (money.)	A sum in compound rules (common weights and measures.)	A sum in practice or bills of parcels.

But in none of these six standards, is Grammar, or Geography, or History, or Algebra, or Geometry, or Bookkeeping, included. For the several conditions on which aid is granted to the schools, see the Revised Code from Articles 38 to 55 inclusive, pp. 123-127. The system of inspection is most efficient and very fair in ascertaining the progress and attainments of pupils; but it does not appear in the least calculated to aid the teacher, either by example or suggestion. One object of the Revised Code was, as stated in the Report, "to compel teachers to attend to their scholars generally, and not mainly to the most clever or regular among them," but it appears to me, that it is calculated also to limit the range of subjects of teaching very much, since reading, writing and arithmetic alone are recognized as the basis of apportionment to the schools; and there seems to be great deficiency in knowledge even in these subjects. The Privy Council Committee remark as follows in their Report for 1866: "The general results of the individual examinations under the Revised Code still continue to show too backward a state of instruction. Only 664,005 day scholars were qualified by attendance (200 times within the year at the same school), and were judged by the managers to be qualified by attainments for examination at all, (*i. e.*, under any one of the standards), 803,177 were qualified by age. The difference 17.3 per cent., marked either interruption in attendance, or hopeless failure in instruction. Only 161,773 were presented, and only 97,364 passed without failure above Standard III., where 264,231 being over 10 years of age ought to have done so, had the first standard been mastered in the seventh year, the second standard in the eighth, and so on. The difference, 63.1 per cent., or nearly two-thirds, marks children passing out of school to work, with less of elementary knowledge than Standard IV. denotes."

11.—SALARIES OF TEACHERS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Salaries of Teachers.—The Report says: "The table compiled from schools inspected, gives £87 3s. (\$435 75) as the average receipts of 6,042 certificated schoolmasters, of whom 3,654 were living rent free besides. If then, notwithstanding this fact, the Colleges for masters are but two-thirds full, the cause must be sought in that demand for labour which is everywhere raising wages, and which naturally affects soonest such professions as offer to a majority of those who

follow them, moderate competency spread over a whole life rather than high present pay, or great prizes to a fortunate few. As experience accumulates, the more sober, but more certain callings recover themselves; and so, doubtless, it will be with schoolmasters in time, subject always to the question, whether the cheaper labour of schoolmistresses is not likely to be found sufficient in a large, if not the larger, part of the country, which remains to be provided with education." The Report states; in another place, that "The minimum of salary of a certificated mistress may be set down as a guaranteed receipt of £40 (\$200) per annum, with a furnished house or lodgings."

12.—PRESENT CONDITION OF EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

Parishes without Schools.—By the same Report of the Committee of Council it appears that "At the end of 1866, of the 14,877 parishes or other places in England separately maintaining their own poor, there were but 31 with more than 5,000 inhabitants in which schools have not been aided with annual grants; but there were 837, with more than 1,000 and less than 5,000 inhabitants, 1,756 with more than 500 and less than 1,000 inhabitants, and 7,780 with less than 500 inhabitants; making in all 10,404 parishes *not aided by grants*. The 11,635 parishes with less than 1,000 inhabitants contained together a population of more than 4,000,000 at the last census and 2,099 of these parishes only (2 in 11) had any share in the annual Parliamentary grant 'for the promotion of education among the labouring classes.'"

It is a most painful fact that, under the operations of an elementary school system which was inaugurated in 1839, administered at an annual expense of £70,000, and involving an annual expenditure of nearly £800,000, there should be 10,404 parishes in England still unreached and not benefited to the amount of a farthing by the system. James Cowan, Esq., LL. D., of Scotland, in his written evidence to the Royal Commissioners, 1867, remarks: "The Privy Council system offers advantages only to those who can help themselves, while it leaves those districts which most require assistance wholly unprovided for. This remark applies with equal force to remote Highland parishes and poor districts in our large towns." The Reverend M. Mitchell, A. M., inspector of Church of England Schools for East London and North Middlesex, remarks, in his report to the Privy Council Committee for 1866, that "A clergyman interesting himself much in educational matters has lately put forward a statement that there are 150,000 children in London not under any instruction. A controversy has arisen as to the fact, upon which it is exceedingly difficult to arrive at any satisfactory statistics." The fact that such a statement is made on such authority, and cannot be successfully controverted, presents a deplorable state of educational neglect and destitution in the very metropolis of the British empire. And where instruction is given it is very limited in duration, and therefore cannot amount to anything like a proper common school education. Mr. Inspector Waddington says, in the same report, that "a subject of real regret

is the fact that in the annual grant schools of all denominations throughout England and Wales, no less than 60.99 per cent. of the scholars have been in school less than two years; 39.8 per cent. less even than one year.

Joseph Kay, Esq., M. A., Barrister-at-Law, and late Travelling Bachelor of the Cambridge University, to investigate the educational systems of the continent, published an elaborate work of two volumes in 1850, on "The social condition of the people of England and Europe." At the close of his second volume, Mr. Kay gives "a short summary of the present state of primary instruction in England and Wales, as collected from the reports of Her Majesty's Inspectors, of the Commissioners of Enquiry in Wales, of the National Society," &c., &c. The following are the first three items of this summary:

"1. It has been calculated that there are, at the present day, in England and Wales, nearly 8,000,000 persons who cannot read and write.

"2. Of all the children in England and Wales, between the ages of five and fourteen, more than half are not attending school.

"3. Even of the class of Farmers, there are great numbers who cannot read and write."

I adduce these facts to show the utter inefficiency of the system thus far established, and the measures thus far adopted to educate the labouring classes, or even to keep pace with their numerical increase; to show the impotence of even prodigal liberality on the part of parliament, and the utmost vigilance of executive administration, to educate the mass of the people without making their education a charge upon the landed and other property of the nation, and without combining the interest and resources of all classes in each locality by local tax and management for the education of all the youth in that locality. In this most important feature of a nation's mission and interest, the history of England during the present century presents a distressing contrast to that of other Protestant countries of Europe. "It was from the German States (says the author of a work, entitled *Recent Measures for the Promotion of Education in England*,) that the influence of advancing civilization spread into Switzerland-Sweden, Denmark and Holland. The wars which succeeded the French revolution, kept back for a time the educational institutions of these States; yet even under a foreign yoke, and in the confusion consequent on rapid political changes, a gradual progress was made; every interval of quiet was, in Germany and Prussia, applied to the reparation of the consequences of foreign invasion; and the peace was no sooner proclaimed, than the government of every Protestant State on the continent sought to rescue the people from the demoralization consequent on a disorganizing war, and to prepare the means of future defence in the development of the moral force of the people. England alone appears in this respect to have misunderstood the genius of Protestantism. With the wealthiest and most enlightened aristocracy, the richest and the most influential church, and the most enterprising middle class, her lower orders are, as a mass, more ignorant and less civilized than those of any other large Protestant country in Europe."

13.—REVISED EDUCATIONAL CODE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

The following is the *Revised Code* (1867) of *Minutes and Regulations of the Committee of the Privy Council on Education in England*.

Preliminary Chapter.

1. A sum of money is annually granted by Parliament for Public Education in Great Britain.

2. This sum is administered by an establishment called the Education Department.

3. The head of the Education Department is the Lord President of the Council, assisted by a member of the Privy Council, who is called the Vice-President of the Committee on Education, and who acts under the direction of the Lord President, and for him in his absence.

4. The object of the grant is to promote the education of children belonging to the classes who support themselves by manual labour.

5. The means consist in aiding voluntary local exertion, under certain conditions, to establish or maintain schools, which are either :

(a.) For the instruction of children (*elementary*) : or

(b.) For training schoolmasters and schoolmistresses (*normal*).

6. In elementary schools, the children attend from the homes of their parents, and charge is taken of them during the school hours only.

7. In Normal Schools, entire charge is taken of the students.

8. Every school aided from the grant must be either :

(a.) A school in connexion with some recognized religious denomination ; or

(b.) A school in which, besides secular instruction, the Scriptures are read daily from the authorized version.

9. Aid to establish schools is given by grants towards the cost of building, enlarging, improving, or fitting up, elementary school-rooms and dwellings for elementary teachers.

Aid is not given to establish Normal Schools.

10. Aid to maintain schools is given by grants to the Managers conditional upon the attendance and proficiency of the scholars, the qualifications of the teachers, and the state of the schools.

11. The aid given to maintain schools is known as "Annual Grants," being annually payable, at a fixed time, to each school allowed to receive them.

12. No grants are made to schools which are not open to inspection by Inspectors appointed by Her Majesty in Council on the representation of the Committee of Council on Education.

13. The Committee of Council consults the religious or educational bodies which are mentioned in Article 20, before making representations to Her Majesty for the appointment of inspectors to visit schools in connexion with those several bodies.

14. The inspectors do not interfere with the religious instruction, discipline, or management of schools, but are employed to verify the fulfilment of the conditions on which grants are made, to collect information, and to report the results to the Committee of Council.

15. No annual grant is paid, except on a report from the inspector, after a periodical visit, showing that the conditions of the grant have been fulfilled.

16. The Committee of Council, at the time of agreeing to make annual grants to a school, informs the managers in what month to look for the inspector's annual visit. This month remains the same from year to year, unless the Committee of Council informs the managers of a change. The inspector gives notice of the day of his visit beforehand to the managers.

17. Annual grants are issued to each school only once per annum. The year for this purpose is reckoned as ending with the last day (inclusive) of the month preceding that fixed for the inspector's annual visit.

18. Schools which have received aid for building, but are not receiving annual grants, are inspected as often as the periodical inspection of the schools receiving annual grants permits.

10. The managers of schools fulfilling the conditions of Articles 4, 6 and 8, may apply for the benefit of Article 18, without having received, or applying for, any grant.

20. The duration of the period, over which the right of inspection extends, depends upon the degree of permanency of the object for which the grant is made.

(a.) If the grant is made for erecting, enlarging, or improving a school the right of inspection is secured by a clause inserted in, or endorsed, upon, the school deed, and is co-extensive with the interest conveyed by that deed.

(b.) If the grant is annual only, the inspector's visit may at any time be declined by the managers, on forfeiting the grant depending upon it.

21. No undertaking must be commenced in general reliance upon the aid to be obtained from the Parliamentary grant. Separate applications, in the form of proposals, must, in the first instance, be addressed to the Secretary, Committee on Education, Council Office, London, S. W.

Full instructions are thereupon issued according to the particulars of the application.

The promoters, or managers, must appoint one of their own body to act as correspondent with the Education Department. Teachers cannot act as correspondents for the schools in which they are employed.

Chapter I.—Grants to establish Elementary Schools.

22. *Building.*—Aid is not granted to build new elementary schools unless their Lordships are satisfied—

(a.) That there is a sufficient population of the labouring class which requires a school in the vicinity,

(b.) That the religious denomination of the new school is suitable to the families relied upon for supplying scholars.

(c.) That the school is likely to be maintained in efficiency.

(d.) That the buildings, at the time of application, have not been begun or contracted for, and that no trust deed has been executed.

23. The grants made by the Committee of Council for building, enlarging, improving, or fitting up elementary schools, are not to exceed *any one* of the following limits, viz:—

1st Limit.—The total amount voluntarily contributed by proprietors, residents, or employers of labour *in* the parish where the school is situated, or *within* a radius of four miles from the school. Such contributions may be in the form of

(a.) Individual subscriptions;

(b.) Collections in churches or chapels in the same parish, or within the distance of four miles from the school;

(c.) Materials, at the price allowed for them by the contractor, or at which sold off;

(d.) Sites given without valuable consideration. (the value to be certified by two professional surveyors);

(e.) Cartage (the value to be certified by the parochial surveyor of roads).

2nd Limit.—2s. 6d. per square foot of internal area in new school-rooms and class-rooms.

3rd Limit.—65l. for each teacher's residence.

24. The site, plans, estimates, specifications, title, and trust deed, must be previously approved by the Committee of Council.

25. The balance of expenditure which is not covered by the *voluntary local* contributions and by *the public grant*, taken together, may be made up from any other sources that are available, such as the proceeds of endowment, or subscriptions which are not local.

26. Grants are not made for rooms intended to be used on Sundays only; or for rooms under places of worship; or to pay off debts for buildings; or in consideration of former expenditure for building; or for maintenance of buildings; or for improving or fitting up schools which have already received the maximum amount allowable under Article 23.

27. The extension of the area of existing school-rooms to receive more scholars, and the addition of teachers' dwellings to existing school-rooms are treated *pro tanto* as new cases under Article 23.

28. No application can be entertained if the approved estimate (Article 24) falls below 20l. in small rural schools (Article 133), or 50l. in other schools.

The Site.—29. The site must be—

(a.) *In extent,*

Not less than 1,200 square yards.

(b.) *In situation,*

1. Not unhealthy, or noisy.
2. Within convenient distance from the homes of the scholars.

(c.) *In tenure,*

Fee simple (Acts 4 & 5 Vict. c. 38, and 12 & 13 Vict. c. 49.)

- (1.) Without incumbrance, or rights reserved over the surface.
- (2.) Relates to reservation of minerals.
- (3.) Relates to powers of leasing, sale or re-entry.
- (4.) Leaseholds are not admissible, if fee simple can be obtained. The term must not be less than 99 years, and there must be no onerous covenants, or more than nominal rent.
- (5.) Copyholds must be enfranchised.

The Trust Deed.—30. The trust deed must declare the premises to be granted in trust for the education of the poor, and for no other purpose whatever.

(31 and 32 relate also to the trust deed.)

33. The plans (with specification and estimate), when approved and sealed, may be returned to the promoters for use, but must be lodged in the Education Office before a grant is paid.

Payment of Grants for building, enlarging, improving and fitting up elementary Schools.—34. The amount of the grant is not announced until after the draft trust deed and plans have been sealed.

35. The grant must be accepted or declined within 14 days.

36. The grant is paid on presentation of a certificate (with balance sheet annexed), by the Building and Managing Committees of the school, setting forth that the building and conveyance are completed, and that the money in hand, raised by absolute donations will, when added to the grant, meet all claims, and finally close the account.

37. Grants under £50 are treated as lapsed, if unpaid at the end of nine months, and grants above £50 at the end of eighteen months, from the date of announcing them.

Chapter II.—Grants to Maintain Schools.

Part I.—Elementary Schools—Section. I.—Annual Grants conditional upon the number and proficiency of the Scholars, the number and qualifications of the Teachers, and the state of the Schools.—38. Schools may meet three times daily; viz., in the morning, afternoon, and evening.

39. Schools which do not meet more than once daily cannot receive grants.

40. The managers of schools may claim at the end of each year; defined by Article 17:

- (a.) The sum of 4s. per scholar according to the average number in attendance throughout the year at *the morning and afternoon* meetings, not being less than 400, of their school, and 2s. 6d. per scholar according to the average number in attendance throughout the year at *the evening* meetings, not being less than 40, of their school.

(b.) For every scholar who has attended more than 200 morning or afternoon meetings of their school :

1. If more than six years of age 8s., subject to examination (Article 48.)
2. If under six years of age, and present, except in united schools (Article *138a), on the day of the examination, 6s. 6d., subject to a report by the inspector that such children are instructed suitably to their age, and in a manner not to interfere with the instruction of the older children.

(c.) For every scholar who has attended more than 24 evening meetings of their school 5s., subject to examination. ●

*40¹. The average number of scholars in attendance for any period is found by adding together the attendances (Article 41) of all the scholars for the same period, and dividing the sum by the number of times the school has been open within the same period; the quotient is the average number in attendance.

41. Attendance at a morning or afternoon meeting may not be reckoned for any scholar who has been under instruction less than two hours, or attendance at an evening meeting for any scholar who has been under instruction less than one hour and a half.

42. Evening attendances may not be reckoned with morning or afternoon attendances in making up the prescribed minimum of 200 or 24 attendances.

43. Evening attendances may not be reckoned for any scholar under 12 years of age.

44. Every scholar attending more than 200 times in the morning or afternoon, for whom 8s. is claimed, forfeits 2s. 8d. for failure to satisfy the inspector in reading, 2s. 8d. in writing, and 2s. 8d. in arithmetic (Article 48).

*44¹. Evening scholars may be examined by the inspector at the time of his visit (Article 16), or, when more convenient, at another time under the direction of the managers (Articles 142-9).

45. Every scholar attending more than 24 times in the evening for whom 5s. is claimed forfeits 1s. 8d. for failure to satisfy the inspector in reading, 1s. 8d. in writing, and 1s. 8d. in arithmetic (Article 48).

46. Every scholar for whom the grants dependent upon examination are claimed must be examined according to one of the following standards, and must not be presented for examination a second time according to the same or a lower standard.†

47. Under any Half Time Act, 100 attendances (Article 41) qualify individual scholars for the grant offered by Article 40, b :—

(a.) Upon examination.

(b.) Without examination, after they have passed according to the highest standard, but continue to attend school under the Act.

* Thus numbered, in order to preserve (for purposes of reference and quotation) the numbering of such Articles as are not substantially altered.

† See Supplementary Rules, page 24.

*47¹. In calculating (Article 40¹) the average number in attendance, the attendances (Article 41) of half time scholars reckon for no more than those of other scholars.

48. Contains the table of standards as on pages 116-117.

49. The grant may either be withheld altogether or reduced for causes arising out of the state of the school.

50. The inspector does not proceed to examine scholars in reading, writing, and arithmetic for the grant, until he has first ascertained that the state of the school does not require it to be withheld.

51. The grant is withheld altogether,—

- (a.) If the school be not held in a building certified by the inspector to be healthy, properly lighted, drained and ventilated, supplied with offices and containing in the principal school-room at least 80 cubical feet of internal space for each child in average attendance.
- (b.) If the principal teacher be not duly certificated (Article 67) and duly paid. Teachers certificated before 31st March, 1864, and who have not otherwise agreed with their employers, are duly paid if they receive not less than three times the grant allowable upon their certificates in Articles 64-5 of the Code of 1860, and they have a first charge to the extent of this grant, being one-third of such due payment, upon the money received by the managers, under Article 40.

Exceptions :—

- 1. United schools (Article 136.)
- 2. Infants, in a separate room, whose average number in attendance throughout the year (Article 17) does not exceed 40, and who form part of one school under a certificated teacher in the same premises.
- (c.) If the girls in the school be not taught plain needlework as part of the ordinary course of instruction.
- (d.) If the registers and accounts be not kept with sufficient accuracy to warrant confidence in the returns.
- (e.) If, on the inspector's report, there appears to be any *prima facie* objection† of a gross kind. A second inspection, wherein another inspector or inspectors takes part, is made in every such instance, and if the grant be finally withheld, a special minute is made and recorded of the case.
- (f.) If three persons at least be not designated to sign the receipt for the grant on behalf of the school.

52. The grant is reduced,—

*Thus numbered in order to preserve (for purposes of reference and quotation) the numbering of such articles as are not substantially altered.

†In Church of England Schools the Order in Council of 10th August, 1840, and the instructions to inspectors relative to examination in religion, which are founded upon it, are included under this paragraph.

- (a.) By not less than one-tenth nor more than one-half in the whole, upon the inspector's report, for faults of instruction* or discipline on the part of the teacher, or (after one year's notice) for failure on the part of the managers to remedy any such defect in the premises as seriously interferes with the efficiency of the school or to provide proper furniture, books, maps, and other apparatus of elementary instruction.
- (b.) By sums of 10%, for every 40 or 80, after the first 50, of the average number of scholars in attendance, unless there be either one pupil-teacher fulfilling the conditions of Articles 81-9 for every such 40 scholars, or one certificated or assistant teacher fulfilling the conditions of Articles 67 and 91-3, respectively, for every such 80 scholars.

The forfeiture is reduced from 10% to 5% if the failure to comply with these Articles be confined to the examination of a pupil-teacher (Article 88); but this reduction is made only once for the same pupil-teacher, and not in successive years for the same school.

Pupil-teachers cannot be apprenticed in schools under teachers certificated in the lower grade of the fourth class (Articles 131-2), or in united schools (Articles 135-140).

- (c.) By its excess above,—

1. The amount of school fees and subscriptions; or
 2. The rate of 15s. per scholar according to the average number in attendance,
- } in the year defined by Article 17.

- (d.) By the amount of any annual endowment (Article 93*.)

53. If the excess of scholars has arisen from increased attendance of children since the last settlement of the school staff (Articles 62, 63), the forfeiture prescribed by Article 52 (b), does not accrue.

†53¹. The reduction prescribed by Article 52 d is suspended, as long as the grant and the endowment together do not make a total sum exceeding the rate of 15s. per scholar according to the average number in attendance in the year defined by Article 17.

54. Pupil-teachers admitted before 30th June, 1862, and the masters or mistresses by whom they are instructed, have a second charge for their several stipends and gratuities so long as their service fulfils the conditions prescribed by the Code of 1860, upon the money received by the managers under Article 40; and in case the money so received shall not be sufficient to meet the second charge upon it, the Committee of Council will add the sum requisite to make up the deficiency.

55. In every school receiving annual grants is to be kept, besides the ordinary registers of attendance,—

- (a.) A diary or log-book.
- (b.) A portfolio wherein may be laid all official letters, which should be numbered (1, 2, 3, &c.) in the order of their receipt.

*In Church of England Schools the Order in Council of 10th August, 1840, and the instructions to inspectors relative to examination in religion, which are founded upon it, are included under this paragraph.

†Thus numbered, in order to preserve (for purposes of reference and quotation) the numbering of such Articles as are not substantially altered.

Diary or Log Book of School.—56. The diary or log-book must be stoutly bound and contain not less than 500 ruled pages.

57. The principal teacher must daily make in the log-book the briefest entry which will suffice to specify either ordinary progress, or whatever other fact concerning the school or its teachers, such as the dates of withdrawals, commencements of duty, cautions, illness, &c., may require to be referred to at a future time, or may otherwise deserve to be recorded.

58. No reflections or opinions of a general character are to be entered in the log-book.

59. No entry once made in the log-book may be removed or altered otherwise than by a subsequent entry.

60. The inspector will call for the log-book at his annual visit, and will report whether it appears to have been properly kept throughout the year.

61. The inspector will not write any report on the good or bad state of the school in the log-book at the time of his visit, but will enter therein with his own hand the full name and standing (*certificated teacher of the — class, or pupil-teacher of the — year, or assistant-teacher*) of each member of the school establishment. The Inspector will not enter the names of pupil-teachers respecting whose admission the Committee of Council has not yet pronounced a decision.

62. The summary of the inspector's report when communicated by the Committee of Council to the managers must be copied into the log-book by the secretary of the latter, who must also enter the names and description of all teachers to be added to, or withdrawn from, those entered by the Inspector, according to the decision of the Committee of Council upon the Inspectors report. The secretary of the managers must sign this entry.

63. The Inspector, before making his entry of the school establishment in the following year, will refer to his own entry made in the preceding year, and also to the entry which is required to be made by the secretary of the school, pursuant to Article 62, and he will require to see entries in the log-book accounting for any subsequent change of the school establishment.

*63'. A log-book must be kept in each united school (Article 140 b.)

Section II.—Teachers referred to in the preceding Section.—64. The recognized classes of teachers are,—(a.) Certificated teachers. (b.) Pupil teachers. (c.) Assistant teachers.

65. Lay persons alone can be recognized as teachers in elementary schools.

Certificated Teachers.—66. Teachers, in order to obtain certificates, must be examined (Article 130), and must undergo probation by actual service in school (Articles 73, 74).

* Thus numbered, in order to preserve (for purposes of reference and quotation) the numbering of such Articles as are not substantially altered.

67. Certificates are of four classes. The fourth (lowest) class consists of an upper and lower grade (Article 131), and includes special certificate for teachers of infants (Article 122). No certificate is issued above the fourth class. Certificates are raised to the higher classes by good service only (Article 78.)

Examination—68. Teachers are examined for certificates as means of distributing the Parliamentary grant to schools. The examination is not open to candidates for professional diplomas only.

69. Examinations are held in December of each year at the several training schools under inspection (Article 119 and 128). The relative proficiency of the candidates according to examination is recorded upon their certificates, but does not affect the class of them (Article 67.)

70. A syllabus, for male and female candidates respectively, of the course of study, may be had on application to the Committee of Council.

71. The names of teachers desiring to be examined must be notified by the managers of their schools to the Committee of Council before the first day of November preceding the examination.

72. Candidates admissible to be examined for certificates must be,—

(a.) Students in Normal schools under inspection (Articles 94, 119, and 120-1); or,

(b.) Teachers who, besides satisfying Articles 68 and 71, are upwards of 22 years of age, and have either—

1. Completed an engagement as pupil-teacher satisfactorily; or

2. Obtained at least two favorable reports with an interval of one year between them upon the school in which they are still employed.

Probation.—73. Candidates for certificates, after successfully passing their examination, undergo probation (*that is to say*), they must, as teachers continuously engaged in the same schools, obtain two favorable reports from the inspector, with an interval of one year between them; and, if the first of these reports be not preceded by service of three months (at the least) since the third examination, a report, at an interval of one year after the second report is required.

74. One favourable report is sufficient after the examination, if the candidate, being continuously engaged in the same school, has obtained two favorable reports in consecutive years immediately preceding the examination.

75. Teachers under probation (Article 73-4) satisfy the conditions which require that schools be kept by certificated teachers.

76. If the second (or third) report is favourable, a certificate of the fourth class is issued, and remains in force (unless recalled under articles 79, 80) for the next five years; after which interval, it is open to revision, according to the intermediate annual reports; and so on after each further period of five years until the first class is reached.

77. No teacher who has changed more than once from one school to another during the five years preceding revision, can be advanced to a higher class.

78. Re-examination is not permitted to candidates once passed, unless they fall under Article 131.

Concurrence of Managers and Inspector.—79. The managers must annually state whether the teacher's character, conduct, and attention to duty have been satisfactory.

80. The inspector must annually report whether the teacher's school is efficient in organization, discipline and instruction.

Pupil-Teachers.—81. Pupil-teachers are boys or girls employed to serve in a school under inspection on the following conditions, namely:—

(a.) *That the school* is reported by Her Majesty's Inspector to be—

1. Under a duly certificated master or mistress (Articles 67 and 131).
2. Held in suitable premises.
3. Well furnished, and well supplied with books and apparatus.
4. Divided into classes, and skilfully instructed.
5. Under good discipline.
6. Likely to be maintained during the period of engagement.

(b.) *That the pupil-teachers* be not less than 13 years (completed) of age at the date (*see marginal note 6*) of their engagement.

(c.) Be of the same sex as the principal teacher of the school, or department of a school, in which they are employed; but in mixed schools or departments of schools, under a master and mistress, female pupil-teachers may receive instruction out of school-hours from the master, on condition that the mistress be invariably present during the whole time that the lessons are being given by the master, who must be husband, father, son or brother of the mistress, and not both young and unmarried.

(d.) Be presented to the inspector for examination at the time and place fixed by his notice (Article 16).

(e.) Pass the examination and produce the certificates specified in Article 88.

(f.) *That the managers* enter into an agreement in the prescribed form:—

N. B.—This agreement should be deposited with the school papers (Article 55). The surety should have either an executed duplicate (which requires a second stamp), or at least a certified copy. The agreement exists only between the persons who sign it. If any of them are changed (*by removal of managers, or otherwise*), forms and instructions for a new agreement (with stamp) may be obtained upon application (Article 21) to the Committee of Council.

82. The Committee of Council is not a party to the engagement, and confines itself to ascertaining, on the admission of the apprentice and at the end of each year of the service.

(a.) Whether the prescribed examination is passed before the Inspector.

(b.) Whether the prescribed certificates are produced from the managers.

83. Whatever other questions arise upon the engagement may be referred to the Committee of Council on Education (provided that all the parties agree in writing to be bound by the decision of their Lordships as final,) but, otherwise, must be settled like any other matter of hiring or contract.

84. Vacancies in the office of pupil-teacher, however occasioned, which occur in the course of any year (Article 17) must not be filled up until after the next examination by the Inspector. In the meantime, the candidate or candidates must be engaged by the week only as monitors, and the memorandum of agreement, Article 81 (f), must not be executed until after notice from the Committee of Council (Article 62) to the managers that the conditions of admission to pupil teachership are fulfilled in each case.

85. Temporary monitors engaged by the week, pursuant to Article 84, for the supply of vacant pupil-teacherships during a current year (Article 17), satisfy Article 52 (b), provided that—

(a.) A sufficient number of candidates to complete the requisite proportion of teachers to scholars pass the inspector's next examination for admission (Article 88) to permanent engagements; and—

(b.) The vacancies have not been occasioned by voluntary causes (*i. e.*, causes for which any of the parties to the agreement can be held responsible) before the fourth year's examination has been passed.

86. Except in the cases provided for by Article 85, each vacancy in a pupil-teachership during a current year (Article 17) works a forfeiture under Article 52 (b.)

87. The qualifications and certificates required of candidates for admission and of pupil-teachers in each year of their service are regulated by the Committee of Council.

89. Female pupil-teachers, before admission to apprenticeship, must produce a written attestation from the schoolmistress and managers that they possess reasonable competency as sempstresses; and, at the annual examinations, must bring certified specimens of plain needlework to the inspector, together with a statement from the schoolmistress specifying whether they have been receiving practical instruction in any other kind of domestic industry. The inspector, at the time of examination, or afterwards, will obtain the opinion of some competent person upon the merit of the needlework.

Pupil-Teachers who have successfully completed their apprenticeship.—90. At the close of the apprenticeship pupil-teachers are perfectly free in the choice of employment. Any person properly interested in knowing the character of a pupil-teacher may apply to the Committee of Council for a testimonial, declaring that the pupil-teacher has successfully completed an apprenticeship; or the pupil-teacher, if willing to continue in the work of education, may become

an assistant in an elementary school (Article 91), or may be examined as a candidate for admission into a Normal School (Articles 103–111), or may be provisionally certificated for immediate service in charge of small rural schools (Articles 132, 133).

Assistant Teachers.—91. Pupil-teachers who can be certified, pursuant to Article 90, to have completed their apprenticeship with credit, may serve as assistants in schools in place of pupil-teachers, without being required to be annually examined. But such assistants cease to fulfil the conditions of Article 52 (b), if at any time the inspector reports them to be inefficient teachers, or if they fail to produce from the managers, and from the principal teacher, of their school, the same certificates of conduct, attention to duty, and obedience, as are required from pupil teachers.

92. Vacancies caused by the withdrawal of assistants in the course of any school year (Article 17) must be supplied by the appointment of temporary monitors, pursuant to Articles 84, 85; but if another assistant, qualified according to Article 91, be appointed before the inspector's next examination, the temporary monitors who preceded such appointment are not required to be examined.

93. Assistants are left entirely at liberty to make their own terms with their employers, both as to hours and wages.

Section III.—Endowments.—*93¹. An endowed school is one deriving income from property inalienably appropriated to it, or to education.

*93². Endowed schools, in order to be admissible to receive either grants or inspection, must fulfil the conditions of Articles of 4, 6, and 8.

*93³. Annual Grants (Article 40) to endowed schools are reduced by the amounts of their income (Article 52 d.) from endowment; but the reduction is suspended as long as the grant and the endowment together do not make a total sum exceeding the rate of 15s. per scholar according to the average number in attendance in the year defined by Article 17 (*Article 53¹).

Part II.—Normal Schools.—Section I.—94. A Normal School includes—

(a.) A College, for boarding, lodging, and instructing candidates for the office of teacher in schools for the labouring classes; and

(b.) A practising department, in which such candidates may learn the exercise of their profession.

95. No grant is made to a Normal School unless the Committee of Council is satisfied with the premises, management and staff.

96. No grant is made for building, enlarging, improving, or fitting up the premises of Normal Schools.

* Thus numbered in order to preserve (for purposes of reference and quotation) the numbering of such articles as are not substantially altered.

Section II.—Grants to Normal Schools.—97. To the practising departments (Article 94, *b*), the same annual grants (Article 40) are made as to other elementary schools fulfilling the conditions of Articles 4, 6, and 8.

98. To the Colleges (Article 94, *a*), annual grants are made of £100, in five successive payments of £20 per annum for every master, and of £70 in five successive payments of £14 per annum for every mistress who, having been trained in them, during two years, has, since December, 1862,—

(*a.*) completed the prescribed period of probation (Articles 73–6), and become qualified to receive a certificate in a school fulfilling the conditions of Articles 4, 6, and 8, or 94; *or*

(*b.*) been reported by the proper department in each case to have completed a like period of good service as an elementary teacher in the Army or Royal Navy, or (within Great Britain) in Poor Law Schools, Certified Industrial Schools, or Certified Reformatories.

99. Masters and mistresses who have been trained for one year only may obtain certificates after probation (Articles 73–6) upon the same terms as others; and five annual grants, of half the amount specified in Article 98, may be made for them to the Colleges in which they were trained, provided—

(*a.*) they completed their training before 1st January, 1864; *or*

(*b.*) are teachers of infants, having—

1. received a complete and special course of training for that service in their Colleges, which must have been previously recognized by the Committee of Council as providing such a course; and
2. undergone their probation (Article 73–6) in infant schools.

100. The grants specified in the Articles 98–9 will not come into full operation before the year commencing 1st January, 1868. Provisional arrangements for the years 1864–7 are included in Article 101.

101. In January, 1864, was ascertained—

(*a.*) What had been *the average annual sum* paid to each College on account of students examined in December, 1860–1–2, and of Queen's scholars certificated assistants, and lecturers resident in the years 1861–2–3. *This sum remains constant in the calculations which follow in this Article.*

(*b.*) What *number of teachers* trained in it during two years, or during one year conformably to Article 99 (*a*), had, in 1863, become qualified, or been reported, as required by Article 98, or 99 (*b*).

The annual grant to each College was—

In 1864, four-fifths of the said average annual sum, *together with* £20 or £10 (in the case of females £14 or £7) for each teacher so qualified or reported in 1863;

In 1865, three-fifths of the said average annual sum, *together with* £20 or £10 (in the case of females £14 or £7) for each teacher so qualified or reported in 1863-4.

In 1866, two-fifths of the said average annual sum, *together with* £20 or £10 (in the case of females £14 or £7) for each teacher so qualified or reported during the three years 1863-5.

In 1867, the number will be ascertained of teachers so qualified or reported during the four years 1863-6; in 1868, the number during the five years 1863-7.

In 1867, the grant to each College will consist of one-fifth of the said average sum, *together with* £20 or £10 (in the case of females £14 or £7) for each teacher so qualified or reported during the four years 1863-6.

In 1868, of £20 or £10 (in the case of females £14 or £7) for each teacher so qualified or reported during the five years 1863-7.

In 1869, and in each subsequent year, the earliest year of the five will be replaced by the year last ended.

102. The annual grant to each College, whether payable under Articles 98-9, or, until 1st January, 1868, under the provisional arrangements specified in Article 101, must not exceed—

(a.) 75 per cent. of the expenditure, certified in such manner as their Lordships may from time to time see fit to require, of the last preceding year; or such proportionately larger sum as Article 102^{*} may allow.

(b.) £50 for each male student, and £35 for each female student, in residence respectively, for continuous training throughout the year in which it is being paid.

*102¹. The number of students in continuous training must not exceed,—

(a.) *In England and Wales*, the number of Students for whom accommodation was provided in 1862.

(b.) *In Scotland*, the actual number in training in 1862.

*102². The sum payable in each year, conformably to Article 102, is ascertained in *January*; and out of this ascertained sum an instalment is paid for students examined in the *preceding December* (Article 119), according to the scale set forth in Article 102³, as soon as the result of that examination has been declared. The remainder of the said ascertained sum is paid in equal parts on 31st March, 30th June, 30th September, and 31st December.

*Thus numbered, in order to preserve (for purposes of reference and quotation) the numbering of articles not substantially altered.

102. The instalments payable under Article 102 in respect of each student examined are determined according to the following scale :

AT THE END OF	For Candidates placed by Examination in each Division.	Instalment to be allowed to College (in the Case of Females Two thirds of these Sums.)		
		£	s.	d.
First years' residence.....	1	20	0	0
	2	16	0	0
	3	13	0	0
	4	13	0	0
Second years' residence.....	1	24	0	0
	2	20	0	0
	3	16	0	0
	4	16	0	0

Section III.—Admission into Normal Schools.—103. A competitive examination of candidates for admission into each normal school is annually held at it in December, by one or more of the inspectors during the week following the examination for certificates (Article 119).

104. The examination extends to the subjects required at the end of a pupil teacher's apprenticeship (Article 88.)

105. The candidates are selected, and admitted to the examination, by the authorities of each Normal School on their own responsibility, subject to no other conditions than that the candidates—

(a.) Intend *bonâ fide* to adopt and follow the profession of teacher in schools fulfilling the conditions of Articles 4, 6 and 8, or 94, or 98, b ;

(b.) Having been pupil teachers, have successfully completed their apprenticeship ; or

(c.) Not having been pupil teachers, are more than 18 years old.

106. All candidates who obtain the minimum number of marks are arranged in order of merit, irrespectively of their having been pupil teachers or not.

107. The authorities of each Normal School may propose to the Education Department for admission any candidate declared to be admissible pursuant to Article 106.

*108.

109. Before candidates are admitted—

(a.) The medical officer of the Normal School must certify the state of their health to be satisfactory, and whether they are free from bodily lameness, defect, or deformity ; and

(b.) They must sign a declaration signifying their intention conformably to Article 105.

*Retained, in order to preserve (for purposes of reference and quotation) the numbering of those articles which are not substantially altered.

110. The authorities of each College settle their own terms of admission.

111. Upon proof by the authorities of any College that candidates have not fulfilled the conditions set forth in Articles 98-9, contrary to a declaration signed by them on admission into the College, the Committee of Council will refuse to grant teachers' certificates (Article 76) to such candidates, or admit them to probation for certificates (Articles 73-5).

*112-118.

Section IV.—Examination of Candidates admitted into Normal Schools.—

119. An examination of the resident students is held in December at the several Colleges in the week^a preceding the examination for admission (Article 103). The day fixed for the commencement of this examination is printed on the syllabus (Article 70) from year to year.

120. No student may be presented for examination except such as, at the date of their admission, satisfied Article 105, and have been resident throughout the whole year. No such student may be left out.

121. The students have a different examination according as they are male or females, or are at the end of a first or second year of residence.

122. The first year's syllabus for females includes special subjects for the teachers of infants. Candidates who pass in these subjects, and complete their probation (Articles 73-6) in schools for infants, receive special mention thereof (*stamp*) on their certificates.

*123, 124.

125. At the end of the first year's residence, students who fall into the fourth division (Article 102^b), are required to take up the first year's subjects again. (*viz.*, at the end of the second year), but in such cases the instalments to the College, and the certificates which the students may obtain as teachers (Article 76), are respectively at the rate (Article 102^b) and in the form (Article 130) of the first year.

126. The principal is at liberty, by notice in writing to the Committee of Council before 30th June in each year, to designate any student who may have appeared in the third division at the end of the previous (first) year's residence as proper to be examined again upon the same terms as the students included in the fourth division; but such designation on the part of the principal does not affect the privileges attached to the student's rank in the previous examination.

*127.

Section V.—Use made of Examinations in Normal Schools for awarding Teachers' Certificates.^a—128. Teachers qualified to be examined for certificates, according to Articles 68, 71 and 72, receive notice to attend the examination held pursuant to Article 119.

^aThus numbered, in order to preserve (for purposes of reference and quotation) the numbering of Articles not substantially altered.

129. Teachers attending examinations pursuant to Article 128 may, at their option, take the papers of the first or second years' students (Article 121).

130. No candidate (Article 72) can obtain a teacher's certificate without passing one of these examinations, but the order of the candidates according to examination, except the fourth division (Article 131), is honorary (Articles 67 and 69).

Students who pass successfully through two years of training in Normal schools receive special mention thereof (*stamp*) on their certificates.

131. Candidates (whether students or acting teachers) who are placed by examination in the fourth division (Article 102⁸), receive their certificates in the lower grade of the fourth class (Article 67). Such teachers are not recognized under Article 81a, for the superintendence of pupil-teachers until they have risen to a higher certificate either by re-examination (Article 78), or good service (Articles 76-7).

*131¹. All teachers at present *registered as competent to instruct pupil-teachers* are included in the fourth class, upper grade, of certificated teachers; all *other registered teachers*, and all *scheduled students acting as teachers*, are included in the fourth class, lower grade.

Part III.—Special Provisions—Section I—Small Rural Districts—

132. Pupil teachers who fulfil the conditions of Article 90, may, upon special recommendation by the Inspector, and upon consideration of their last examination papers, be provisionally certified in the lower grade of the fourth class (Article 131) for immediate service in charge of small rural schools (Article 133), but after their 25th year of age (completed) their provisional certificates must have been exchanged for permanent certificates (Article 66), or are *ipso facto* cancelled.

*132¹. The provisional certificate (Article 132) is confined to an entry of the pupil teacher's name in a register kept by the Committee of Council on Education, and does not involve the issue of any certificate to the pupil teacher.

133. Small rural schools—

(a.) Must not contain more than 1,200 square feet of superficial area in the whole of the school-rooms and class-rooms; or

(b.) Must not have an annual average attendance of more than 100 scholars.

134. (The Article formerly 134 is now 131¹, which see above.) Schools having an average annual attendance of more than 89 scholars are not exempted by Article 133 from Article 52, b.

135. Any number of schools fulfilling the conditions of Articles 4, 6 and 8,

(a.) Not being less than *two*, nor more than *six*;

(b.) Of which no one has within *one and a half* miles of it, a population of more than *five hundred*;

* Thus numbered, in order to preserve (for purposes of reference and quotation) the numbering of articles not substantially altered.

(c.) Of which the aggregate number of scholars is not less than *forty* (annual average); and

(d. Of which each has its own resident teacher;—

may be united under the superintendence of one certificated master or mistress, who must spend *two* clear hours at the least in each week at each school during its ordinary time of meeting, or, if the number of united schools be less than *six*, such longer time per week as *twelve* hours divided among the united schools will give to each.

136. The resident teacher of each of the united schools is not required to be certificated.

137. The superintending teacher must have been trained for two years in a Normal School (Article 94) under Government inspection, must have been placed not lower than the third division in the examination (Articles 119–121) at the end of the second year, and must have received a certificate after the usual probationary service (Articles 73 and 76.)

138. The day scholars of all the united schools must be assembled once per annum, with their resident and superintending teachers, at some school-room under inspection, for examination by one of Her Majesty's inspectors, in the same manner as if they formed one school (Articles 16, 17.)

*138'. The resident teachers (Article 135 d) must bring with them (Article 138) their school registers, their log books (Article 140), and the examination schedules, duly filled up and signed, of their several schools.

*138". Children under six years of age, who are qualified by attendance for the grant under Article 40, b, 2 must be entered in the schedules, but they need not appear in person at this examination, but will be inspected at their several schools (Article 140).

Children (of whatever age), who have not attended often enough (200 times) to be entered in the schedules, need not appear at this examination, but will be inspected at their several schools (Article 140.)

139. The whole of the united schools must be represented by one official correspondent, and by one treasurer for the receipt of annual grants (Article 40.)

140. (The Article formerly 140 is now 141.) The inspector, before or after examining (Article 138) the children, visits the several schools and makes a special report upon each of them. If he reports (*intër alia*) that Article 40, b, 2 is not satisfied in regard to the infants (Article *138', the grant for them in that school is withheld.

141. (This Article was numbered 140 in the Code of 1866.) Articles 38–63' apply, in all respects not specially excepted, to each united school, but

(a.) pupil-teachers cannot be apprenticed (Article 81) in them (Article 136; and

(b.) the superintending (Article 137) as well as the resident (Article 135 d) teacher must join in keeping the log-book (Articles 56–63') of each united school.

* Thus numbered, in order to preserve (for purposes of reference and quotation) the numbering of Articles not substantially altered.

Section II.—Evening Scholars.—142. The managers of any school to which annual inspection has already been promised (Article 16) may apply in writing to the Committee of Council on Education, to be furnished with printed papers and instructions for holding an examination of their evening scholars (Articles 38, 39).

*142¹. Only one examination per annum of evening scholars is held in the same school, and it may be held at any time of the year, provided that, between any two of such examinations, there intervene—

(a) the inspectors annual visit (Article 17); and also

(b) forty, or more, meetings of the school in the evening (Article 40a).

143. The applicants must pledge themselves that (exclusively of all teachers of the candidates) at least two managers—or, if only one manager, then such manager, and at least one other responsible person—shall be present during the whole of the examination, and shall conduct it in every respect according to the instructions accompanying the examination papers.

144. The examination papers are sent under an official seal, and must not be unsealed except in the examination room, and in the presence of the candidates immediately about to use them.

145. The written exercises, all of which must be upon paper, having been securely sealed up in the presence of the candidates before leaving the examination room under the seals of the two persons holding the examination, must be forwarded, by the next post, to the Education Department, and transmitted thence to the inspector of the School.

146. The exercise of the evening scholars transmitted to the inspector are not returned by him to the Committee of Council except as part of his next annual report on the whole school (Article 16), and the grant for the examination of the evening scholars is not paid except as part of the next annual grant to the whole school (Article 17).

†147. (The Article formerly 147 is now part of *142¹, which see above).

148. In order to ensure the presence of a responsible manager to receive the examination papers, the managers of each school, in which a special examination of evening scholars is to be held, must renew their application (Article 142) every year to the Committee of Council. The day fixed for the examination must allow the interval required by Article †142¹.

149. The inspector of the school is at liberty to attend, without notice, at the time fixed for the examination (Article 142), and to hold it in person. .

Chapter III.—Revision of Code.

150. The Committee of Council on Education, in the course of each year, as occasion requires, may cancel or modify articles of the Code, or may establish

* Thus numbered, in order to preserve (for purposes of reference and quotation) the numbering of Articles not substantially altered.

† Retained, in order to preserve (for purposes of reference and quotation) the numbering of these articles which are not substantially altered.

new articles, but may not take any action thereon until the same shall have been submitted to parliament, and laid on the Table of both Houses for at least one calendar month.

151. In January of each year the Code shall be printed in such a form as to show separately all articles cancelled or modified, and all new articles, since the last edition, and shall be laid on the Table of both Houses within one calendar month from the meeting of Parliament.

(Signed) BUCKINGHAM & CHANDOS,
Lord President of the Council.

H. CORRY,
Vice-President of the Committee of Council
on Education.

Council Office, 31st January, 1867.

XVII.—GENERAL OBSERVATIONS ON SYSTEMS OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN EUROPE.

1.—PUBLIC PROVISION FOR COLLEGES.

In all the European countries, however small, whose systems of public instruction have been noticed in the preceding pages, special provision has been made at the public expense for the establishment of Colleges and even Universities, embracing the Faculties of Law, Medicine, Philosophy, and most of them Theology. The Colleges are numerous, whether so designated, or as in Germany, called *Gymnasiums*.

2.—TAXATION OF PROPERTY FOR ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

In all those countries, with the exception of England and Ireland (but including Scotland), the elementary education of all classes, and especially of the poor, is made a charge upon the landed and other property of the nation. This charge is viewed not as a burden or charity, but as a *debt*, as much as any other public charge,—one of the conditions of the tenure of property, and one of the means by which the security and value of property are maintained and promoted. Had this principle been recognized in England and Ireland from the period of the Reformation, as in Protestant countries of the Continent, the lower classes would have been among the best, instead of being the worst educated and most wretched in Europe, except in some parts of Southern and Central Italy. Hundreds of millions which have been expended in administration of poor laws, and in relief of the poor, would have been saved, as also vast expenditures for reformatories and prisons, and the loss of the intelligent labour and good example of hundreds of thousands of the working classes. England has long expended more in connection with the poor laws than all Germany has in educating the lower classes. The Annual Parliamentary Grants

for elementary education in the United Kingdom involve a much larger sum than is provided by the Legislature even in France for both elementary and secondary education; but the education for which those grants provide does not keep pace with the increase of the uneducated classes. Nor do I believe that any material progress in the extension of elementary education in England will take place, until the system of local rates on property for that purpose is established, and all the local interests and influences which local rating invariably develops, are brought to bear on the education of the masses.

3.—CO-OPERATION OF RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS IN EDUCATION.

Religious differences need not, and should not prevent the co-operation of all classes in the one great interest and duty of educating the whole people. No greater religious differences can exist in any country than those which have been encountered in Holland, in the Prussian Provinces of the Rhine, in Baden in Wurtemberg, in Bavaria, in German Austria, in several Cantons of Switzerland, and I may add in France; yet in each of these countries the difficulties arising from religious differences have been overcome; all the children receive religious as well as secular instruction without wrong or just offence to any party, and to the general satisfaction and mutual amity of all parties, and in all degrees of education from the Primary School up to the University. Whether the Governments are democratic, as in the Swiss Cantons; or liberally constitutional as in Holland, Baden, Wurtemberg, and heretofore in Saxony; or nearly absolute or despotic, as in Prussia, Austria, Bavaria, France, the difficulties of religious differences have been overcome, and all parties have agreed in the paramount duty, and in the one great interest of universal education; and in no one of these countries has there been any desire expressed from any quarter to repeal the laws which relate to Primary Education. If in England a different state of things exists, the cause cannot be mistaken when a church, having been endowed and privileged by the nation, and having neglected to educate the nation, is yet sufficiently potent to make its own supremacy the sole condition of national education. Happy Ontario! that has long since abolished dominations and religious monopolies fatal to national peace and instruction, and has combined all parties upon equal terms in the noblest work of universal education.

4.—PRACTICAL SCHOOLS FOR TRADES AND THE ARTS.

It is worthy of remark, that the European systems of public education, provide not merely for the elementary and higher classical or collegiate education, and for the regular training of teachers and professors, but also for practical education in connection with the different pursuits and employments of life. There are the Primary Schools, equivalent to our Common Schools; and the high, or citizen, or burgher schools, and the Communal Colleges of France,—similar to our Grammar Schools; and the Royal Colleges and some Lyceums of France, and the Gymnasias of other continental countries,—equivalent to our Colleges, and the diploma or certificate of which is equivalent to our B.A.; and

the Universities, to enter which what we call graduates are alone eligible; in which are the Faculties of Law, Medicine, Theology, and in some Philosophy. Besides this hierarchy of educational institutions, there are various more practical schools, all of which are sequels of the primary schools, and require an entrance examination of all candidates for admission. In nearly all these schools French, German, English, and sometimes other modern languages are taught; also Natural History, Chemistry, Mineralogy, elements of Natural Philosophy, Mechanics, Geometry, Practical and Descriptive Drawing, History, Book-keeping, &c. In some of these schools only a part of the subjects enumerated is taught, and others introduced, according to the mechanical pursuits, trades, or branches of manufacture or commerce for which they are intended, as a preparatory training of pupils. Among these special schools, are industrial schools (*gewerbe-schulen*), real Schools (*real-schulen*), technical Schools, Commercial Schools, Schools of Arts and Trades, of Agriculture, of Architecture, of Drawing and Painting, of Forests, of Navigation, of high and even Commercial Schools for girls, Military Schools, &c., &c. In most of these schools the course of instruction is four years; in some of them, six or seven years. The technical schools are frequented mostly by labouring mechanics and tradesmen in the evenings; the industrial schools are superior to the technical, and are next to the real schools, from which students often advance to Polytechnic Schools—the highest order of practical schools. Professional education on the Continent implies merely a preparatory education for any of the ordinary occupations of life, and not for the professions of law, medicine, &c., as with us. There are also different kinds and orders of Normal Schools for the special training of instructors of all these Schools, Colleges and Universities. It is thus, that in all the Continental countries from Norway to the Alps, and from the Vistula to the Bay of Biscay, provision is made by the State for the education of all classes, from the pauper to the prince, and in the preparatory studies for all the productive, mechanical, and manufacturing employments, and for all the pursuits of agriculture, trade, commerce, navigation, the fine arts, literature, science and the professions, which make up the industry, wealth, refinement, and civilization of a nation. They may not be in advance of us in some aspects and elements of civil and religious liberty; or religious enlightenment; but in every other respect they are our teachers and exemplars.

5.—CONDITIONS OF EFFICIENCY.

In reviewing the European systems of instruction, it will be observed that there are four conditions essential to the efficiency of their elementary schools. (1.) Suitable buildings, furniture and apparatus. (2.) A high standard of qualification for teachers, and their regular training. (3.) A liberal support of teachers, and a high *minimum* of salary, especially as in Holland, some of the Cantons of Switzerland, Baden, Wurtemberg, and some of the Provinces of Prussia. (4.) Thorough inspection of schools by Inspectors, who are competent and practical instructors themselves.

6.—TRUE METHOD OF EDUCATING A PEOPLE—ITS EFFECT.

Nor is it less obvious from the preceding review, that the method of educating a whole people is, not to attempt to do everything for them as in England, and leave it to their option to do anything or nothing for themselves, but, to enable the people to educate themselves, to help them only as they need, and to compel those who neglect or refuse to attend to this highest national interest and first right of individual humanity.

I think the preceding review also demonstrates, that just in proportion as a country provides liberally and systematically, by means of executive and local municipal co-operation for the support of a truly national system of education, as in Holland, Switzerland, Germany and France, that country advances in all the elements and characteristics of national prosperity. Money employed to educate, whether by a family or a nation, is a profitable as well as patriotic investment.

XVIII.—COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

From the last Report to the Emperor of the French, of His Excellency M. Duruy, Minister of Public Instruction, I make the following extracts:—

(Translation.)

1. INTRODUCTORY—REFORMS REQUIRED IN FRANCE.

“The state of primary instruction, such as results from facts established by enquiry, demands serious remedies.”

Some are of an administrative character: to improve the methods of teaching, to increase the value of teaching, to render the influence of inspection at once more energetic and more continuous, to awaken the emulation of pupils and teachers, &c., &c.”

“Some reforms required are of a financial character; to establish schools where they are wanting; to improve the schools already established in regard to buildings, school furniture, and libraries; for in the school as in the shop, the selection of the locality and the excellence of the tools are of considerable importance; to continue the improvement in the circumstances of teachers, to elevate their position and dignity, which would give the right of demanding new efforts from them.”

“Finally, there is one particular remedy which many persons demand, which many countries practice, and which it is necessary to examine: *it consists in imposing upon primary instruction an obligatory character*, not only as to admission to the school, but as to the duration of attendance.”

2.—“PRIMARY INSTRUCTION COMPULSORY—HISTORICAL SKETCH.

The system of compulsion in our country is ancient and of noble origin. In the States of Orleans, in 1560, the article 12 of the character of nobility proceeds:

“The raising of a contribution upon ecclesiastical benefices for the reasonable support of teachers and men of letters in all the towns and villages, for the instruction of the poor children of the country; and that fathers and mothers *be required under penalty* of fine, to send said children to the school, and that this be compelled by the nobles and ordinary judges.”

“In 1571, the general States of Navarre, on the proposal of Queen Joan of Albret, made primary instruction compulsory.”

“The Kings Louis XIV. and Louis XV., influenced, it is true, by a private interest, decreed in the declarations of the 15th April, 1695, 13th December, 1698, and 14th May, 1724, that the high Justices should be bound to prepare each month a statement of the children who did not attend school, and that the Attorney-General should take proceedings in that respect.”

“The Convention only caused to be restored to a general and patriotic point of view the interested prescriptions of the Royal Government, when it resolved, 25th December, 1793, that all children throughout the extent of the Republic should be compelled to attend the schools.”

“This prescription, like many others of the same epoch, remained a dead letter; but in the estimation of many persons whose souvenirs extend not beyond that date, the system of compulsory instruction, by reason of its supposed origin, has rested under the taint of suspicion. Nevertheless we find it established everywhere around us in both Monarchical States and in Republican Societies.”

“Frederic II prescribed it for Prussia in 1763. ‘It is our will’ he says, ‘that all our subjects, parents, guardians and masters, send to school the children for whom they are responsible, both boys and girls, from their fifth year, and keep them there regularly until the age of 13 or 14 years.’”

“This royal order is revived in the code of 1794, and in the law of 1819, with a severe penalty; namely, warning, fine, even imprisonment, against offending parents, guardians or masters.

“According to the regulations of the Province of Silesia, school age extends from 5 to 14 years of age, with the same prescriptions. Besides the principle of compulsory instruction is so vigorously applied in Prussia, that the duty of attending school corresponds with the duty of military service. (*Schulpflichtigkeit und Dienstpflichtigkeit*). It results, from the official statistics of 1864, that out of 3,090,294 children of age to attend the primary schools, 130,437 only did not attend; and of this limited number, which responds to the figures of 884,887 in France, there must be deducted all those children who have received instruction in the secondary schools and at home, and those in

regard to whom it was physically or morally impossible to go to school. Thus in the Prussian army, of 100 young soldiers, 3 only on the average are completely illiterate. An officer charged with the military instruction of the Landwehr, at Potsdam, received in 12 years only 3 young soldiers who did not know how to read and write. The fact appeared so strange that an enquiry was ordered. It was ascertained that they were three sons of a boatman, born on a river, who had passed their youth in ascending and descending that river, without stopping to reside anywhere.

"As to the rest of Germany, numerous testimonies show that the compulsory system has been perfectly accepted by the populations. The fact is specially attested by an Englishman, Mr. Pattison, who was charged in 1860 with an official enquiry, and this same year (1864) by General Morin, who has just accomplished, in the name of the Minister of Commerce, an important mission to Germany, as also by M. Baudouin-Bugnet, whom the Minister of Public Instruction had charged to visit the schools in Belgium, Switzerland and Germany. The following regulations exist on the subject:—

"*Austria*.—Since 1774 instruction is compulsory, under penalty of fine throughout the whole Empire; but this regulation is only really observed in the German Provinces of the Empire. A certificate of religious instruction is necessary in order to enter into an apprenticeship or to get married, the ordinance of May 16th, 1807, having given the priest in each parish the most extensive powers for the direction of instruction and the application of the compulsory system.

"*Bavaria*.—The *schulzwang* (school obligation) exists in Bavaria as in Prussia, since the second half of the last century, the offenders incurring imprisonment. But it scarcely or never happens to any person to render himself liable to it. Every Bavarian subject accepts the obligation.

"*Baden*.—The obligation has the sanction of a fine, and in case of repetition, of imprisonment. All the children receive instruction. By virtue of a law passed last year by the two Chambers, with only two dissenting voices, the school administered by a Commission (or Board of Trustees) elected by the fathers of families, has its own resources, and does not depend on the Church or the State.

"*Wurtemberg*.—Instruction is obligatory under penalty of fine and imprisonment until fifteen years of age complete; and every locality composed of 30 families must have a school.*

*The general diffusion and excellence of primary instruction in Wurtemberg are certainly very remarkable and that which most strikes a stranger. There is not a peasant or servant girl of the lowest class who does not know how to read and to write and cipher. Besides, education appears as perfect as primary instruction. No where are the labouring classes more respectful, more obliging and more industrious. We are assured, besides, that morality is much more strict than in several other parts of Germany. In fine, the piety of the Wurtembergians is gentle, tolerant, but sincere and general. To attain to this result, they must have displayed as much energy as generosity. It is stated that each teacher receives a salary of not less than 500 florins (1,075 francs) (\$215), which secures the selection of teachers from among the most educated and respectable of the citizens. On the other side instruction is obligatory until the age of fourteen years. A Commission of select men carefully oversees each

“ Kingdom of Saxony.—The obligation exists from 6 to 14 years of age, under pain of fine and imprisonment. At this day there would not be found in the whole Kingdom a single child never having attended school. The following is contained in this respect in a recent note from the French Legation at Dresden:—

“ ‘ In the first years of the application of the law of June 6th, 1835, the authorities had to combat with the negligence of parents in submitting to the forced regime of the schools. But soon the benefit of a general and punctual attendance at the schools, and its salutary results convinced even the opposers. The present generation of parents, educated under the new law, do not think of keeping their children from its beneficent application. It is thus that the execution of its penal provisions has virtually ceased.’

“ The Ambassador of His Majesty, the King of Saxony, at Paris, confirms this information, and adds—“ It required two school generations to effect this revolution; for it is since 1848 that the greatest efforts have been made.

“ *Duchy of Nassau.*—Instruction since 1817 is obligatory, under pain of fine; but instruction is free, or gratuitous, except for furnishing the school; and it is stated that there is not a single individual entirely illiterate in the Duchy.

“ *Grand Duchy of Hesse.*—For each day of absence of the child from school, the parent is liable to a small fine. In default of payment the total fine is converted into days of labour, for the benefit of the commune. With very few exceptions, all the children go to school, and there ‘ is reckoned scarcely one voluntary absence in a year for each child.’

“ *Electoral Hesse.*—Instruction is obligatory from 6 to 14 years.

“ *Grand Duchy of Mecklenburg.*—The same regulation. According to a very recent report, there has not of late been presented a case in which a pupil has sought to evade the law.

“ *Grand Duchy of Oldenburg.*—The same legislation and the same results.

“ *Hanover.*—Instruction is obligatory from the age of 6 years. There is reported 1 pupil for every 7 inhabitants.

“ *Grand Duchy of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.*—The obligation is found here as in all the Saxons, and dates back 200 years.

“ *Saxe Meiningen.*—Instruction is obligatory from 5 to 14 years of age, until confirmation, under penalty of fine and even imprisonment. The cases of resistance are rare, and many schools have never witnessed one.

“ *Grand Duchy of Weimar-Eisenach.*—No child remains deprived of instruction. The obligation exists under penalty of fine and imprisonment; but during the last 40 years, no child has been entirely withdrawn from the duty of school attendance.

“ *Duchy of Altenburg* (since 1807).

school; for the first or second absence of the child from school, the child himself or herself is responsible and is punished by the teacher; but for the third absence the parents are accountable. At the time of the conscription each conscript is examined as to his education, and the parents are responsible in the same manner when their son does not know how to read and write. (Extract from a book entitled “ *The Agriculture of Germany, its Schools, organisation, its manners, by M. Roger, Inspector of Agriculture, published in 1847 by order of the French Minister of Agriculture and Commerce.*)

"Duchy of Brunswick.—It is the same in the two Duchies with very rare examples of the application of the penalty.

"To sum up.—For all Germany, we may say, that obligatory instruction is regulated by the following principles :

"Lists of children are prepared by those who keep the registers of the Civil State, and are remitted to the teacher that he may be able to attest the absences.

"Registers of absence are kept with scrupulous care by the teacher, who remits the list of absentees to the Chairman of the School Commission, or Board of School Trustees, composed of fathers of families.

"Allowance is made in case of bad and exceptional weather, or on account of great distances, and of harvest.

"Penalties.

"1st. Admonition or warning, under the form of notice sent by the President of the School Commission, or Chairman of the School Trustees.

"2ndly. Summons to appear before the School Commission, followed by reproof and advice from the President.

"3rdly. Complaint addressed by the Commission to the Magistrate, who imposes most frequently a fine—1 franc and a half, 2 or 4 francs,—which is doubled in case of a second offence. In certain cases the delinquent is sent to prison for 24 hours.

"At the present day there is only reproof and threatening; the penalties are rarely inflicted. But the object is accomplished; and the Frenchman who travels in Germany to study school questions, who sees the assiduous attention at school, those complete studies, that real prosperity of the schools, recrosses the Rhine with regret that there are such differences in the state of primary instruction between the two countries (France and Germany).

"In Sweden, Norway and Denmark, parents who do not cause their children to be instructed are equally subject to fine. Confirmation is refused by the Ministers of the Church to all the uneducated. In 1862, out of a population of 385,000 Swedish children, 9,131 only were uninstructed.

"Switzerland.—Instruction is obligatory in Switzerland, except in the Cantons of Geneva, Schwitz, Uri and Unterwalden. In the Canton of Zurich, according to the legislation of 1859, the school age extends from five to sixteen years inclusive. Not only the parents and guardians, but the heads of factories are bound, under the same penalties, to enable their children to fulfil the obligation of the law; and if a father causes private instruction to be given to his son, he does not the less pay to the school the fees of his schooling. In the Canton of Berne, the young soldiers must, as in Germany, give proof that they know how to read, to write a letter, draw up a report, do any ordinary question in Arithmetic. If the examination is not satisfactory, they are obliged to attend the school in the barracks. Ordinarily there are only from 3 to 5 in 100 who are thus deficient. The instruction of women is pushed quite as far as that of men.

"*Holland*.—In Holland public relief is withdrawn from all indigent families who neglect sending their children to school. This procedure has been adopted in several cities in France. It has been so in Paris itself, by virtue of administrative regulations.

"*Italy*.—Instruction is free and obligatory, in principle at least, in the Kingdom of Italy, by the law of 1859, under pain of reprimand, fine and imprisonment. The unlettered are declared incapable of the elective franchise. The requirements relative to direct school obligation cannot yet be executed.

"*Portugal*.—Negligent parents are liable, since 1844, to fine and the privation of political rights for five years. But the law is, as yet, only imperfectly executed, the schools not being numerous enough.

"*Spain*.—Instruction has been declared obligatory by the law of September 9th, 1857, under pain of reprimand and fine.

"*United States of America*.—At the foundation of the New England Colonies, instruction was made strictly obligatory by law, which, its object having been attained, fell into disuse. 'Instruct the people (says Macaulay), was the first advice given by William Penn to the new State which was then organized. Instruct the people! was the last recommendation of Washington. Instruct the people, was the incessant exhortation of Jefferson.' But the emigration from Europe carried thither without ceasing new elements upon which it was necessary to operate. A law of 1850 authorized the cities and towns of Massachusetts to adopt measures of compulsion against children who did not attend school. At Boston and in a certain number of cities, the regulations made in virtue of this law were vigorously applied. Notwithstanding, they felt the necessity of going further. A law of the 30th of April, 1862, imposes upon all the towns of Massachusetts the duty of taking measures against vagrancy and non-attendance at school. Every child from 7 to 16 years of age who contravenes the regulations established, may be condemned to a fine of 20 dollars, which the parents have to pay, or the child is placed in a school of correction. In Connecticut a law of 1858 denies the electoral right to every citizen who does not know how to read."

After giving the above epitome of the state of the law in different countries as to compulsory education, the French Minister of Public Instruction proceeds to answer the seven objections which have been put forth against it "as a limitation of parental authority;" "it is inconsistent with liberty of conscience;" "it lessens the resources of the family;" "it is a dangerous power in the hands of government;" "it is a material impossibility to admit all the children in the present state of school accommodation;" "it is a new impost and heavy burden upon the peasant and labourer," It is needless for me to occupy space with the translation of the crushing replies to these stale objections. I will translate only two passages—the first a quotation from the report of a commission of which the late celebrated Victor Cousin was chairman, in reporting the project of the famous school law introduced by M. Guizot in 1833, and which is the basis of the present system of public instruction in France. M. Cousin and his fellow commissioners remark:—

"A law which would make Primary Instruction a legal obligation, does not appear to us more above the powers of the legislator than the law respecting the National Guard and the taking possession of property for public utility. If the reason of public utility suffices to touch private property, why should not the reason of a much higher utility suffice to do less—to require that children should receive the instruction indispensable to every human being, in order that they may not become a nuisance to themselves and to the whole of society? Is not a certain instruction of citizens in the highest degree useful and even necessary to society? Such is the question. To resolve it affirmatively, is to arm society, unless it is desired to contest the right of self-defence; it is, we say, to arm society with the right of watching that the little instruction necessary to all should not be wanting to any. It is a contradiction to proclaim the necessity of primary instruction, and then deny the whole means which can secure it. It is not consistent to impose upon each commune the obligation of a school without imposing upon the children of that school the obligation to attend the school. True liberty cannot be the enemy of civilization; quite the contrary, it is the instrument of it; there is its greatest value, as that of liberty in an individual is to serve for his own improvement."

The last passage which I will translate is that in which the French Minister of Public Instruction illustrates the moral and material results of a compulsory system of education in a country exactly equal to Ontario in population:

"A century since, the country of Baden was one of the least improved countries. At the close of the wars of the Republic and the Empire it came forth from its lethargy. Compulsory instruction, decreed in principle in 1803, received in 1834 the most important developments; and one generation suffices to make of the Grand Duchy one of the most prosperous States of Germany. The obligatory law there gives occasion no longer for only a very small number of warnings or fines. 'In that respect,' said a high functionary in 1864, 'we have reached a point in which nothing more can be done.' That law, useless after 50 years, for boys, is of use only for girls' schools."

"What have been the consequences of compulsory instruction? The morality and riches of the country have increased; the number of marriages is augmented, illegitimate births diminish, the prisons become empty. In 1854 there were 1,426 prisoners, while in 1861 there were no more than 691. The number of thefts decreased from 1,009 to 460. On the other side the material prosperity of the country made a wonderful advance. The current of emigration to America has been arrested; the warnings in regard to taxes have decreased two-thirds; the number of the indigent has declined one-quarter. And Doctor Dietz, the Commercial Director of the Grand Duchy, speaking of this extraordinary transformation, added 'The principal instrument of this development has certainly been the compulsory education of the popular classes.'"

I conclude this French review of the question by translating the following paragraphs from the conclusion of the admirable report presented to the Emperor

by M. Baudouin, the French School Commissioner to Germany and Switzerland in 1865, and to whom I am indebted for some most interesting portions of the preceding pages. M. Baudouin says :—

“Germany, which was the first to enter upon the career of school reforms, and which had first transformed into public and free schools the numerous convents with which its territory was covered, received long since the fruits of an initiative as happy as it was bold. In the sciences, in literature and arts, it soon occupied an eminent rank among the most advanced nations. Agriculture, the working of mines, industry and commerce sprang into life ; and at this day it is impossible to study attentively the activity and riches of its great industrial centres, Leipsic, Hamburg, Elberfeld, Barmen, Crefeld, &c., without being struck with the connection which exists in a country between the spread of instruction and the development of public prosperity.

“Until these latter times, Southern Germany (Austria, Bavaria, &c.) left the control of instruction in unskilful hands, or those accustomed to restrict it, in order to prevent it from going out of the rut of the old track ; thus, notwithstanding the riches of its mines, the excellence of its pastures, the fertility of its soil, the general state of its affairs is not comparable to that of the provinces of the North.

“Switzerland renders these deductions almost palpable, because the terms of the comparison are nearer to each other. In the Cantons of Bâle, Zurich, Berne, Neuchâtel, &c., public instruction is obligatory. The authorities are watchful to see that the school laws are strictly observed ; the pastors encourage and stimulate the masters ; the grand Councils interest themselves in the progress of the schools and excite emulation. In the Cantons of Lucerne, Soleure, Schwitz, &c., the Commissions of Overseers remain indifferent ; the Grand Councils, composed of ignorant farmers, think that the state of schools is perfect in remaining what it was in their time. Thus, when one travels in Switzerland, not to admire the beauty of the landscapes, but to examine thoroughly into its institutions, and to seek counsels in results, he has no need of looking at the territorial limits to perceive that he is passing from a Canton in which instruction has been neglected into another in which it has been carefully cultivated.

“Let us conclude, then, without fear of deceiving ourselves, that the prosperity of a country marches parallel with public instruction, advances, retrogrades, or remains stationary with it ; and that there is always between the two parts an incontestible connection which bears the authentic character of cause and effect.”

To these statements and observations of the French School Commissioner I will subjoin the following remarks of the *North American Review*, for January, of the current year.

“As for the history of the system, on which its opponents rely a good deal, the facts are on the side of its advocates. It began in Europe with the Reformation ; in America, thirty-five years after the English occupation, with the first Colony whose charter gave power to introduce it : on both sides of the ocean,

therefore, it is associated with the growth of liberty. One of the blows dealt against the ancient *régime* by the French Revolution was the establishment of compulsory education ; and though the sweep of the revolution may have been but a *déluge de mots*, as it has been called (by Guizot), its surges show what was thought liberal by those to whom liberalism was a matter of life and death. Its liberal character is still more fully supported by the recent development of the system in Massachusetts, where centralization and its train are not supposed to be making much headway. The child, it is to be further noted, has his rights, and, as far as they relate to education, the system of compulsion protects them. The father has his duties, and, as far as they relate to education, the system enforces them. To enforce the father's duties is not, we take it, to invade his rights, not to undermine the family, not to undermine society, not, in fine, to bring about any of the evils conjured up by the opponents of compulsory education. On the contrary, it would seem that the system, instead of being an assault upon the individual, or upon the family, or upon society, is, to the extent of its influence, a defence of all the three.

"All education is a development, an opening through the ignorances and errors that lie between us and the life before us. It begins within, but works outwardly, and leads us forth from encompassing obstructions to broader ground and clearer skies. Compulsory education does the same, in breaking a way for children or for classes whose training is obstructed, and settling them fast in the direction of light and truth."

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

My epitome of Foreign Systems of Public Instruction would be essentially defective, did I not refer to the neighboring States, to whose example and experience we are so much indebted for the establishment and success of our Canadian School System. But I must confine my notice chiefly to four States, with which we have the most intimate and largest connections—Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania and Ohio. I will also refer to other States, and add a few words on the School system of Connecticut—as the offspring of that of Massachusetts.

XIX.—STATE OF MASSACHUSETTS.

1.—HISTORICAL SKETCH.

The system of public instruction in Massachusetts commenced with the establishment of Harvard College, and by a public appropriation for its support. In 1636—16 years after the landing of the Pilgrims from the Mayflower, and 6 years after the settlement of Boston, the General Court of the Colony of Massachusetts Bay, met in Boston the 8th of September, and passed an Act appropriating

£400 towards the establishment of a College—a larger sum than one year's revenue of the whole Colony, which then consisted of not more than five thousand persons, settled in ten or twelve villages. But those adventurous emigrants came there for permanent settlement; and among them were several graduates of the English University of Cambridge. This was a bold and noble commencement. Two years afterwards, in 1638, Rev. John Harvard left by will to the College the sum of £779, and upwards of 300 volumes of books. Again, two years later, in 1640, the General Court granted to the College the proceeds of Charlestown Ferry; and two years later still, in 1642, the Governor, with the Magistrates, Pastors and Elders of the Churches, were empowered to establish statutes and regulations for the government of the College; eight years afterwards, in 1650, a Charter was granted, which was protected by an Article in the first Constitution of the State, adopted, after the Revolution, in 1780, and which remains at this day the fundamental law or charter of the oldest institution in America.

But at the very time, in 1642, when the Governor and others were empowered to frame statutes and regulations for what was called Harvard College, in Cambridge, and chartered as a University, the General Court laid the foundation of the general educational instruction, character, and prosperity of the Colony by the following enactments:—

“Forasmuch as the good education of children is of singular behoof and benefit to any commonwealth; and whereas many parents and masters are too indulgent and negligent of their duty in this kind:

“It is therefore ordered by this Court and the authority thereof, That the selectmen of every town, in the several precincts and quarters where they dwell, shall have a vigilant eye over their brethren and neighbours, to see, first, that none of them shall suffer so much barbarism in any of their families, as not to endeavour to teach, by themselves or others, their children and apprentices so much learning as may enable them perfectly to read the English tongue, and knowledge of the capital laws, upon penalty of twenty shillings for each neglect therein; also, that all masters of families do, once a week, at least, catechise their children and servants in the grounds and principles of religion, and if any be unable to do so much, that then, at the least, they procure such children or apprentices to learn some short orthodox catechism, without book, that they may be able to answer to the questions that shall be propounded to them out of such catechisms by their parents or masters, or any of the Selectmen, when they shall call them to a trial of what they have learned in this kind; and further, that all parents and masters do breed and bring up their children and apprentices in some honest lawful calling, labour, or employment, either in husbandry or some other trade profitable for themselves and the commonwealth, if they will not or cannot train them up in learning to fit them for higher employments; and if any of the Selectmen, after admonition by them given to such masters of families, shall find them still negligent of their duty in the particulars aforementioned, whereby children and servants become rude, stubborn, and unruly, the

said Selectmen, with the help of two Magistrates, shall take such children or apprentices from them, and place them with some masters for years—boys till they come to twenty-one, and girls eighteen years of age complete, which will more strictly look unto and force them to submit unto government, according to the rules of this order, if by fair means and former instructions they will not be drawn unto it.”

In the same year the following brief School Code was enacted—

“It being one chief project of that old deluder, Satan, to keep men from the knowledge of the Scriptures; as in former times, keeping them in an unknown tongue, so in these latter times, by persuading from the use of tongues, so that at least the true sense and meaning of the original might be clouded and corrupted with false glosses of deceivers; and to the end that learning may not be buried in the graves of our forefathers, in Church and Commonwealth, the Lord assisting our endeavours:

“It is therefore ordered by this Court and authority thereof: That every township within this jurisdiction, after the Lord hath increased them to the number of fifty householders, shall then forthwith appoint one within their town to teach all such children as shall resort to him, to write and read, whose wages shall be paid, either by the parents or masters of such children, or by the inhabitants in general, by way of supply, as the major part of those who order the prudentials of the town shall appoint; provided that those who send their children be not oppressed by paying much more than they can have them taught for in other towns.

“And it is further ordered: That where any town shall increase to the number of one hundred families or householders, they shall set up a Grammar school, the masters thereof being able to instruct youths so far as they may be fitted for the *University*, and if any other town neglect the performance hereof above one year, then every such town shall pay five pounds per annum to the next such school till they shall perform this order.”

Such was the commencement of Public Instruction in America. The first educational institution was an endowed College; and the first system of elementary education was a *compulsory* one. It was not left to a settlement of even fifty families to say whether it would have a school to teach reading, writing and arithmetic or not; or to a village or neighbourhood of a hundred families to say whether it would have a classical and mathematical school or not; nor was it left to any parent or master to say whether he would teach his children and domestics to read the English language or not. The Common School education of each child was an original condition of settlement; a fundamental principal of the social compact as between parents and children, masters and apprentices and servants, under the guardianship of the State; and from this seed-plot have grown and multiplied the educational institutions and systems which now enrich and bless America.

Such was the school system of Massachusetts for 200 years—a system sustaining collegiate education out of public revenue, and providing for elementary

education, not by any public school fund or state tax, but, as in Prussia and Holland still, by the requirements of law in regard to each township and neighbourhood. No provision was made for a school fund in Massachusetts until 1834; as late as 1863 the annual amount of that fund was only \$49,044 and the amount apportioned in aid of schools in 1865-6 was \$62,646.

2.—PRESENT SYSTEM IN MASSACHUSETTS.

The fundamental principles of the Massachusetts school system remain as established more than two hundred years ago: but in 1837 it was organized into a state system, and, as such with sundry legal and practical improvements it is now administered. At the head of it stands

The Board of Education, which was first established in 1837, and which is composed of the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, and eight persons appointed by the executive for the term of eight years, one member retiring annually, and his place supplied by executive appointment. The duty of the Board is to prescribe the forms of returns, appoint a Secretary; appoint the officers of the Normal Schools; collect and diffuse information as to the best methods of rearing and extending education. The expenses of the Board are paid out of the public treasury. The Board presents an annual report of about 60 pages on the state of the Normal Schools and of Schools generally—to which is appended the Secretary's Report and abstracts of local reports of school committees. These abstracts (many of them admirable essays on school education and management) occupy upwards of 300 pages. To these are added tabular and statistical returns filling upwards of 100 pages. The Report of the Secretary of the Board, occupying between 100 and 200 pages, is a document of great value, on his own proceedings, the state of education, and the best means of improving and extending it. Besides the Secretary, the Board appoints Agents to visit, lecture, &c. Spending a day or more in each town, examining schools in the afternoon and lecturing in the evening—also attending associations and institutes of teachers.

Institutes, first organized in 1846, may be established where 50 or more teachers express a desire to unite and sustain one. The sessions are limited to five days. Three thousand dollars are appropriated from the school fund to aid in defraying the expenses of Institutes; but the apportionment to each is limited to \$350. The Secretary of the Board usually attends them.

County Associations of teachers are also encouraged by an allowance to each of \$25, provided its session be held two days and a half in the interest of public schools.

Normal Schools.—The first State Normal School was opened in 1839; two others were opened in 1840; another was opened in 1853. The towns where these four Normal Schools are established, provided the premises and buildings, for the sake of the local advantages of the schools. Two of these Normal Schools are for females; and two for both sexes. The teachers of the Normal Schools are appointed by the State Board of Education. Tuition is free.

Males are admitted at seventeen; females at sixteen; every candidate admitted must give an assurance of his or her purpose to teach in the public schools of the state. The course of study extends through two years; there are four classes of pupils in each school; a six months term of study for each class.

High Schools are authorized in all towns, and are required in all towns of 500 families. They are to be kept open ten months of the year, and of course include instruction in the higher branches of English education, together with Latin and Greek, so far as is necessary to prepare pupils for the University. Adjoining towns, each with less than 500 families, may unite to sustain a High School. The number of towns required to keep high schools in 1866 was 131: the number of high schools maintained in these towns was 116; the number of High Schools kept in towns not required by law to maintain them, was 25; the whole number of High Schools was 141. Number of *incorporated Academies* returned, 52. Average number of scholars, 3,564. Amount paid for tuition, \$118,815. Number of *Private Schools* and Academies returned, 596; decrease, 86. Estimated average attendance, 16,387; decrease, 4,947. Estimated amount of tuition paid, \$226,447; decrease, \$144,618.

The law requires that each high school shall be kept open to all the inhabitants for ten months of the year; that provision shall be made for instruction not only in higher branches of English, but also in general History, Book-keeping, Surveying, Geometry, Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, Botany, the Civil Polity of the United States, and the Latin Language; and that in a town of 4,000 inhabitants, there shall be a first grade high school in which Greek and French as well as Latin are to be taught, if required, and also Astronomy, Rhetoric, Logic, Intellectual and Moral Science and Political Economy.

It is worthy of remark that the high schools in Massachusetts (corresponding to our grammar schools) are supported by public taxes as well as the common schools, and are managed by the same Boards of Trustees or Committees.

Cities, Towns, School Districts and Schools.—The number of cities and towns (our townships and incorporated villages correspond to their towns) are 335, and the number of school districts (our sections) are 2,258—2,127 less than there are school sections in Ontario, (their districts being larger according to population than our school sections); but the number of their schools is 4,759, 456 more than in Ontario—they counting each story of a large school-house in a city as a school, and having *graded* schools, and therefore more than one school in many of their districts.

Population—School Attendance.—The population of Massachusetts according to the last census, taken in 1860, was 1,231,066, about 200,000 less than was that of Ontario taken the same year. The school population in 1865, between the ages of 5 and 15 years, was 255,328. The population of Ontario the same year, between the ages of 5 and 16 years was 426,757. The number of pupils of all ages in Massachusetts attending the schools in winter was 231,685; in summer, 230,894. The number of pupils of all ages in Ontario attending the schools, was 383,652.

Teachers, and their "Wages," &c.—The number of *male* teachers employed in the public schools was 1,086; of *female* teachers, 4,695; total, 7,598. "Average wages" of male teachers (including high school teachers) per month was \$59.53; "average wages" of female teachers per month was \$24.36. Average length of time the schools were kept open was 7 months and 19 days. The average time of keeping open the schools in Ontario (including one month's legal holidays and vacations) was 11 months and 3 days.

School Fund.—The amount of State School Fund distributed to the several cities and towns in 1865-6 was \$62,649. The amount of Public School Fund and Legislative Grant distributed in Upper Canada was \$165,972. The amount raised by taxes for the support of public schools in Massachusetts, including only wages, board, fuel, care of fires and school rooms, was \$1,993,177. The total expenditure for all Common and Grammar School purposes in Upper Canada was \$1,450,119—very far short of that of Massachusetts.

School Committees.—What we call Trustee Corporations are called Committees in Massachusetts. Formerly these Committees were elected annually; but the school law in this respect was amended in 1857, and provided that the School Committee of each town should consist of three, or (in case of large towns) of a multiple of three; "one-third thereof to be elected annually, and to continue in office three years." This Committee is invested with plenary powers to arrange, classify and grade the schools of the town (township); to examine and employ teachers who are furnished with proper certificates of qualification; to visit the schools during the first and last week of every month of each session. The law fixes a compensation for the members of the Committee. Authorized by a popular vote, the Committee may select a superintendent of schools, to act as their agent, and report to them.

School Books are selected by the Committee,—are furnished to the pupils at cost; cannot be changed without the unanimous consent of the Committee, and without supplying at public expense the new books substituted for the old ones. Poor children are furnished gratuitously with school books. Much regret has been expressed in successive reports that the State Board of Education has not been empowered to select and prescribe Text Books for all the schools of the State.

School Houses and School Sites.—The law requires that the several townships provide school houses sufficient in number and capacity to accommodate all who have a right to be taught in them. By a recent law the school Committee may take a piece of land for each school site, not exceeding 80 square rods, exclusive of buildings, by paying the owner a fair equivalent, just the same as a piece of land may be taken for a public road by paying the owner the fairly estimated value of it. Such a law exists now in Lower Canada and greatly facilitates the proper selection of school sites.

Attendance and Truancy.—The law requires that all children between eight and fourteen years of age should attend some public school in the city or town where they reside for at least twelve weeks of the year, six of which to be con-

secutive, except in cases of extreme poverty, or where the child has equal advantages in a private or home school, or is physically or mentally incapacitated from attending school. There are also stringent laws which the towns are required to enforce in order to secure attendance of all children at schools, and prevent youthful vagrancy.

Distribution of the School Fund—Abolition of School districts.—The law provides for the distribution of one half the school fund to the public schools, and the other half to "other educational purposes"—such as superintendence of schools, printing reports, &c. The distribution of the fund to the cities and towns in aid of public schools has been made on two conditions:

1. That schools in such city or town shall have been kept open six months of the year. 2. That such city or town shall have raised by tax, a sum equal to *three dollars* for each resident child between five and fifteen years of age. The distribution amounted to from twenty to twenty-five cents per child. But in 1866, an act was passed containing the following important provision.

"In the distribution of the income of the school fund, for the benefit of the public schools of the state, *every city and town complying with all the laws* in force relating to the distribution of the same, shall annually receive *seventy-five dollars*; and the residue of said moiety shall annually be apportioned among the several cities and towns in proportion to the number of children in each, between the ages of five and fifteen years: *provided*, that after the distribution of the said moiety of income in the year eighteen hundred and sixty-nine, *no city or town* in which the *district system* [our school section system] *exists, shall receive the seventy-five dollars herein specifically appropriated.*"

By the law as heretofore existing, the town (our township) could be divided into as many school districts or sections, as the selectmen or elected Council, might determine, and a Committee of three Trustees be elected for each district. The same provision existed in regard to cities, the wards of which might constitute so many separate school divisions. A law was passed many years since authorizing the union of these districts in both towns and cities into one school corporation. The City of Boston and many townships availed themselves of this provision, and thus centralized their township, and city school operations; but in many cases they adhered to the idea and practice of little local independent school divisions. The law of 1866 provides, that no city or township retaining the sub-divisions of school districts or sections, shall receive the seventy-five dollars from the income of the school fund after 1869. This is the strongest practical testimony of the longest experience in America, against school sections and in favour of township school organizations. The Secretary of the State Board of Education, referring to this provision of the law and to the evil of the sub-division of township and cities into small school sections, remarks:

"This new provision is alike just and wise, and liberal in its policy. It will do something towards alleviating the burdens which the support of their Public Schools imposes upon the town of limited population but extended territory, and will doubtless encourage still nobler efforts. In not a few the territory is so

large and the population so sparse, that the endeavour to bring the schools within easy reach of all, has tended to increase their number beyond what a just economy or wise management of the schools themselves would allow. This process of sub-division has been carried to such an extent as not only to reduce the schools themselves to a very low grade, but also to impose a heavy burden of taxation in order to maintain them for the period required by law. In a majority of the towns of this class the per centage of taxation for the support of their schools ranges from two to three or four mills in the dollar, while the munificent, not to say magnificent, system of schools of the City of Boston is maintained by a rate of taxation but little exceeding one mill in the dollar."

3.—THE PROTECTION OF CHILDREN EMPLOYED IN MANUFACTORIES.

The last Act of the Massachusetts Legislature on this subject, passed in 1866, is so brief, comprehensive and benevolent that I give it entire, as follows —the counterpart of similar humane Factory Acts in the British Isles:—

"An Act in relation to the Employment of Children in Manufacturing Establishments.

"*Sec. 1.* No child under the age of ten years shall be employed in any Manufacturing Establishment within this Commonwealth, and no child between the age of ten and fourteen years shall be so employed, unless he has attended some public or private day school under teachers approved by the School Committee of the place in which such school is kept, at least six months during the year next preceding such employment; nor shall such employment continue unless such child shall attend school at least six months in each and every year.

"2. The owner, agent or superintendent of any manufacturing establishment, who knowingly employs a child in violation of the preceding section, shall forfeit a sum not exceeding fifty dollars for each offence.

"3. No child under the age of fourteen years shall be employed in any manufacturing establishment within this Commonwealth more than eight hours in any day.

"4. Any parent or guardian who allows or consents to the employment of a child in violation of the first section of this Act, shall forfeit a sum not exceeding fifty dollars for each offence.

"5. The Governor, with the advice and consent of the Council, may, at his discretion, instruct the constable of the Commonwealth and his deputies to enforce the provisions of chapter forty-two of the General Statutes, and all other laws regulating the employment of children in manufacturing establishments, and to prosecute all violaters of the same."

(Approved May 28, 1866.)

XX.—STATE OF CONNECTICUT.

1.—HISTORICAL SKETCH.

The settlement of Connecticut commenced in 1633—three years after that of Boston,—and emanated from it. In its first towns and future ultimate capitals of Hartford and New Haven, the public school was one of the earliest subjects of municipal legislation—in Hartford in 1638, and in New Haven in 1639—contemporaneously with providing for roads and bridges, public worship, and protection against the Indians. And eleven years afterwards, the year that the General Court of Massachusetts Bay chartered Harvard College, the little Commonwealth of Connecticut, in adopting the Code of 1650, provided for the maintenance of schools by townships identically with Massachusetts, as in the Acts quoted above, pages 151-152, in Acts which, with slight modifications to make them more efficient, remained on the Statute book for 200 years. Even at that early period, Connecticut legislated on the subject of Collegiate as well as of Primary Education; adopted Harvard College, and provided to assist in its support, by adopting in the chapter on schools of its Code of laws, the recommendation to “every family” to “give yearly the fourth part of a bushel of corn, or something equivalent thereto, for the advancement of learning by the College at Cambridge,” a contribution which was continued for 50 years, until ten of the principal ministers, in 1700, brought each a number of books to found a College—now Yale College.

One hundred and sixty-seven years ago, in 1701, the Connecticut system of public instruction was so far matured as to embrace the following particulars :

“1. An obligation on every parent and guardian of children not to suffer as much barbarism, in any of their families, as to leave a single child or apprentice unable to read the holy word of God, and the good laws of the Colony; and also to bring them up in some lawful calling or employment ‘under penalty for each offence.’”

“2. A tax of forty shillings on every thousand pounds of the lists of estates was collected in every town with the Annual State tax, and payable proportionally to those towns only which should establish their schools according to law.”

“3. A Common School in every town (township) having over seventy families, kept for at least six months in the year.”

“4. A Grammar School in each of the four head County towns, to fit youth for College.”

“5. A College towards which the General Court made an annual appropriation of £120.”

“6. A provision for the religious instruction of the Indians.”

State School Fund.—In 1795, Connecticut laid the foundation of its State School fund, by devoting for Common School purposes the income of the pro-

ceeds of a portion of public lands ceded to it in Ohio. The capital of the School Fund is now \$2,050,460; the annual income \$131,997. There is also a "Town Deposit School Fund," the capital of which is \$763,661, and the annual income \$45,819. Altogether this is the largest school fund of any country in the world in proportion to the population, which, in 1860, was only 410,147—scarcely one-third that of Ontario.

The Colonial Charter which the first settlers of Connecticut obtained from the British Crown, formed the basis of its government until 1818, when the present State Constitution was adopted, the eighth Article of which protects both Yale College and the School Fund.

2.—PRESENT CONDITION OF EDUCATION IN THE STATE.

In 1855, the following amendment of the Constitution was adopted—an amendment worthy of being written in letters of gold:

"Every person shall be able to read any article of the Constitution, or any Section of the Statutes of this State, before being admitted as an elector."

The school population of the State between the ages of 4 and 16 years was, in 1864, 114,772; the whole number of pupils registered in summer was 69,057; the whole number registered in winter was 77,126; there are 1,795 Common Schools, 12 Public High Schools and Academies, about 350 Private Schools and Academies, 1 State Normal School, State Reform School, an Institution for the Deaf and Dumb (the parent institution of the kind in America), three Universities, one of which is Yale, the only University in the United States whose degrees are recognized by Oxford and Cambridge Universities in England.

The amount appropriated from the school fund for the support of the public schools is \$178,311; the amount provided by local taxation and fees for the same purposes is \$259,544. In regard to the condition of the schools and duty of perfecting the school system so as to secure universal education, the State Superintendent, in his report presented in 1865, remarks:—

"It has been my privilege to visit schools in most of the States, from Maine to Missouri, and from Canada to Carolina, and in the course of official duties, I have visited more than a thousand schools in Connecticut. While there are schools in some of our sister States and in Canada which seem as nearly perfect in arrangement, control, and instruction, as any human institution can be, it may be said with truth, that there are schools or departments in this State which will not suffer in comparison with any elsewhere. But this is not universal or general. With all the excellencies of which we may boast, and the bright examples to which we may proudly point, there are defects in organization, in plan and execution. Let the defects and imperfections be fairly and frankly exposed, and let there be legislative enactments, wherever necessary, which will tend to foster the schools and encourage improvements; and it is hoped that there will be, on the part of the people, promptitude and intelligent action to remedy the defects, remove the imperfections, and secure all the appliances necessary for successful universal education. So long as there is in the State a

single school perpetuating error or marring the human soul, or a single pupil checked in his course with half an education, because the school is not to be found to complete the work, or a single child in the streets untaught, there is something to be done to perfect the system and improve the condition of the schools of this commonwealth.

An important provision to secure proper School-house accommodation.—The School law provides that “no district (section) shall be entitled to receive any money from the school fund of the State unless such district (section) shall be supplied with a school-house, and out-buildings pertaining thereto, which shall be satisfactory to the Board of School Visitors.”

XXI.—STATE OF NEW YORK.

1.—COMMON SCHOOL SYSTEM.

The population of New York State is nearly three times that of Ontario. There are two State Normal Schools, largely attended; there are school libraries, but diminishing in the number of books in them; the School Trustees are elected and now hold office as in Ontario; the schools are now made free to all residents from 5 to 21 years of age throughout the State; and the school districts are pretty much the same as our school sections: but no teacher can be employed who is within two degrees of relationship to any trustee, without the consent of the majority of the rate-payers.

Statistical.—The number of school districts (our sections) reported in 1864 was 11,717; the number of teachers employed for the whole or part of the year was 5,707 males and 21,181 females. The number of children between five and twenty-one years of age was 1,307,822, the number of children reported as attending the public schools was 881,184.

Financial.—The school moneys apportioned by the State Superintendent, are derived from three sources, and in 1864-5 amounted to the following sums: From the Common School Fund, \$155,000; from the U. S. Deposit Fund, \$165,000; from State School Tax (at the rate of three-fourths of a mill on all real and personal property in the State, and paid into the State Treasury), \$1,125,749. Total \$1,445,790. This sum was apportioned by the State Superintendent as follows: For salaries of School Commissioners (our County Superintendents), \$56,000; for “district quotas” (that is, apportionment to school districts or sections according to school population), \$439,249; for “pupil quotas” (that is, apportionment according to average attendance of pupils—adopted from Upper Canada), \$893,607; for libraries \$55,000; for contingent apportionment, \$1,848. The following sums were provided from local sources: By local tax in cities, \$1,993,479; by local tax in rural districts, \$674,599; by rate bills in rural districts (before the schools were made free—they being free in cities long

since), \$429,892; total from local sources, \$3,097,971, which, with \$1,445,749 apportioned by the State Superintendent, makes a grand total of \$4,543,720 for common school purposes. This sum was expended as follows: For teachers' salaries \$3,093,460; for libraries, \$26,890, not half the sum apportioned, school districts being allowed in many cases to apply such money to pay teachers; for school apparatus, \$137,613; for coloured schools, \$30,468; for school-houses, sites, &c., \$647,301; for all other incidental expenses, \$614,036. Such were the statistics and financial operations of this great system in 1864, I not being able to command a later report.

The State Superintendent was formerly elected for three years by a popular vote of the State; he is now elected for three years by joint ballot of the Senate and Assembly. His powers are great and various; his decisions have the force of a court of law, and are final, and enforced by fines against all parties that resist them.

District Commissioners correspond to Local County Superintendents with us, but with greater powers. They are elected triennially by popular vote in each of the 113 County Assembly districts in the State, at the general election of County officers. Each Commissioner is sworn, and receives a salary of \$500, with travelling expenses not to exceed \$200 per annum paid out of the public fund; but the salary may be increased by the vote of a majority of the town supervisors. The expenses of each Commissioner are to be assessed on the property of the district which he superintends. His duties are similar to those of our County Superintendents. He has supervision not only of instruction and discipline in the schools, but also of the buildings, ground, &c., and in concurrence with the town supervisors may condemn a school-house, the school in which is cut off from all share in the school fund during the continuance of the sentence. But a Commissioner is liable to be removed from office by the State Superintendent for being concerned in any agency in aid of booksellers or publishers.

The mode of electing the County School Commissioner, or Superintendent, by popular vote, gives rise to much electioneering and partyism. One report says: "There is as much wire-pulling and pipe-laying to win the office as in any other of equal or greater dimensions." In some cases, the most active party-man gains the office against the best qualified man. But the State Superintendent says: "With very few exceptions the Commissioners are competent and worthy men"; and thinks the salaries allowed them are inadequate and should be increased by legislative enactment. He also speaks of the office of County Commissioner "as incomparably superior in both economy and efficiency to that of Town Superintendent, which it superseded." The State Superintendent speaks likewise of the beneficial operations of the legal provisions for improving and securing proper school-house accommodation—provision required in many places in Canada. He says: "Commissioners report that the provisions of the school law of last winter are contributing to the improvement of the school-houses, and the sentiments of the inhabitants of the districts in regard to them. Those utterly unfit for man or beast, have, in a few instances, been condemned by the

united action of Commissioners and Supervisors, whilst a very large number have, by their direction, been repaired, and provided, as they never were before, with proper fuel, pails, brooms, and other implements necessary to keep them clean, and render them reasonably comfortable for use. It is gratifying to report these improvements, in view of their influence upon the comfort, morals and memories of the pupils."

2.—HIGHER AND OTHER INSTITUTIONS.

There are 20 Colleges in the State, 226 Academies, (attended by nearly 30,000 pupils,) 5 Law Schools, 11 Medical Schools, 1 Military Academy, 1 Institution for Deaf and Dumb, and 1 Institution for the Blind, besides other benevolent institutions. Not only the public schools, and the schools of all institutions sharing in State grants for educational purposes, but the Deaf and Dumb and Blind Asylums, the Houses of Refuge, Reformatory Schools, &c., are under the supervision of the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

We are largely indebted to the State of New York for the original outline of our own Canadian Common School system; and we may avail ourselves still further of the experience of that State on some points, both for warning and imitation.

XXII.—STATE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

1.—COMMON SCHOOL SYSTEM.

The foundation of the present system of Common School education was laid by an Act passed in 1834, but the general Act then passed has undergone various amendments, especially in 1854, until 1866-7. At first the acceptance of the law was optional with the townships, towns and cities, but was made obligatory on all in 1849,—the great majority having previously accepted it by popular vote. The present school system in Pennsylvania seems more comprehensive and more thoroughly matured than that of New York, though popular education is less advanced.

The State Superintendent of Common Schools is appointed by the Executive with the advice of the Senate for the term of three years, is invested with large powers, and is also required to visit the Normal Schools and attend Teachers' Institutes.

Normal Schools.—The State is divided into twelve Normal School districts. Each district must provide the premises and buildings of its own Normal Schools, which may be established by the union of thirteen or more citizens, for the training of teachers in such district, and must be under the direction of a Board of Trustees who are to report to the State Superintendent. In order to be accepted by the State, the Normal School must have ten acres of ground, and

buildings embracing a hall of sufficient capacity to seat 1,000 adults, with classrooms, lodging rooms, refectory, &c., for at least 300 students—all the apartments well lighted, heated and ventilated; also a library room, cabinet and other apparatus. Attached to each Normal School shall be one or more Model Schools, with not less than 100 pupils, in order to afford the students an opportunity of acquiring a practical knowledge of the art of teaching. Each Normal School is to have six Professors, one of the theory and practice of teaching; and the Principal, in whom is invested the discipline and government of the institution. There are various regulations for the admission of candidates. The premises and buildings are erected and kept in repair from local sources; but the State appropriates from five to ten thousand dollars per annum to each to assist in defraying current expenses. Four of these State Normal Schools are in operation, to the support of which the State has appropriated sixty-nine thousand dollars from 1861 to 1867. There are also some 20 private Normal Schools in the State, attended by some two thousand students for a longer or shorter period.

County Superintendents are appointed for a period of three years by the School directors or trustees of townships, who meet in a convention at the seat of each county once in three years “to appoint a person of literary and scientific acquirements and of skill and experience in teaching who is to be the County Superintendent, to be sworn in and receive his commission from the State Superintendent, and his compensation is fixed by the directors at from \$300 to \$1,500. The aggregate salaries of the County Superintendents are stated at \$60,000 per annum. The State Superintendent speaks in the strongest terms of the superior economy and efficiency of the office of County Superintendent over that of Town or Township Superintendent.

School Districts and Directors.—A legal school district in Pennsylvania is not a small portion or section of a township, as in the State of New York, and as heretofore in Upper Canada, but it is a township, borough, or city not divided into wards. It has corporate powers through an elective Board of six Directors, —what we should call a Township Board of School Trustees—who “are required to have a sufficient number of Common Schools of different grades for the education of all children in the district between six and twenty-one years of age, who may apply for admission, in the following branches, viz.:—Orthography, Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, Geography, and Grammar, and such other branches as the directors may authorize; but the County Superintendent is to see that the branches named are taught.” The School directors have ample powers to levy and collect school taxes and for all school purposes, and are authorized to take ground for school sites, against the will of the owner, by paying him the fairly estimated value of it. A provision which the State Superintendent represents as most beneficial in its operations. This provision of the law also exists in Lower Canada.

The Text Books are selected jointly by the Directors and Teachers in each District at a general meeting at the beginning of each year, and may differ in each district, and even in each school, though the law speaks of “uniformity

in text books as essential to successful teaching." The evil of diversified text books, and the expensiveness of the diversity and frequent change of them to parents, are strongly stated in the reports.

School Moneys.—Total State appropriation for Common School purposes, including amount paid to County Superintendents, and including, also, the amount paid to Philadelphia, in 1867, \$343,140; amount collected by taxes in School districts, \$3,628,145; total \$3,972,285. To which must be added for "cost of purchasing, renting, building and repairing school-houses, \$985,152.

Teachers.—Number of male teachers employed in 1867, 6,619; female teachers, 8,590—total 15,209. Average salaries of male teachers per month, \$35.87; of female teachers, \$27.51. The teachers are hired by the month in Pennsylvania and most other States, and are therefore paid only during the months that the schools are kept open,—which is less than six months in Pennsylvania. The State Superintendent says:—"The qualifications of the Teachers of the State are still much below what they ought to be. This is shown by the astonishing fact, that not one half of them ever read a book on the subject of teaching."

Schools.—The State Superintendent remarks—"The average length of time during which the Schools of the State are kept open is five months and sixteen and three-fourth days. In a large number of districts the school term is only four months. Such short terms do injustice to the children of the State, and render it entirely impossible to secure well qualified teachers."

School Attendance.—The School population of the State is not given. The whole number of pupils in attendance at the Schools, in 1867, is stated at 660,163; the average attendance at 414,537. Fifteen districts or townships are reported as not having put schools in operation, and thus continue to forfeit their share in the State appropriation.

2.—OTHER INSTITUTIONS.

There are 37 chartered University Colleges in the State of Pennsylvania, fourteen of which have voluntarily forwarded reports to the State Superintendent. They report in the aggregate 112 professors and tutors; 2,120 student pupils; 214 having graduated during the year.—Thirty-two Academies reported having 190 instructors, and 4,414 pupils. Only eleven high schools reported—stated to be a very small proportion of those in the State, "since there are 2,147 graded schools, and every system of graded schools must, in some sense, have high schools."

3.—GENERAL REMARKS.

There are three provisions of the present Pennsylvania school system which are an immense improvement upon anything which has preceded them: namely. The appointment of the State Superintendent by the Executive with the advice of the Senate, instead of by popular election throughout the State; the appointment of County Superintendents, in place of Town Superintendents, by the Township Directors or Trustees, instead of by a universal suffrage vote as

heretofore, and the organization of each Township in one School Corporation with an elective Board of Directors, or Trustees, instead of the former system of School Districts or School Sections. At the conclusion of his report for 1866, the State Superintendent very justly and forcibly remarks as follows:

“ Our School system has become an enormous power. The future character of the State will be moulded by it. If we take care of our Schools, the State will take care of itself. Its Schools are the only vulnerable part of the Republic. A noble Roman matron once said, pointing to her sons, ‘ These are my jewels.’ So a State that can point to its children, well instructed and well trained, has jewels that will enrich it forever.”

“ The question that rises in importance above all other questions, in this country, is that which concerns the means of educating the whole people. This provided for, and all other questions can be settled at leisure. This one needs the most prompt attention. Popular ignorance is the seat of every disease that has hitherto threatened the life of the nation, and, sound here, it will be proof against all dangers in the future.”

XXIII.—STATE OF OHIO.

1.—COMMON SCHOOL SYSTEM.

The Common school system of Ohio is a noble monument of State liberality; is partly an offshoot of the New York and Pennsylvanian school systems; is somewhat complicated; and is suggestive to us, in review, as a caution in several respects, rather than for imitation, since the progress of it does not appear equal to the expenditure incurred in its establishment and support.

I will notice first its municipal divisions, then its gradations of authorities and officers.

Districts, Sub-Districts, School Directors.—Every Township, as in Pennsylvania and Massachusetts, constitutes a School District; but, in addition, each township or school district is divided into sub-districts, as townships in Ontario are divided into school sections. Each city and each incorporated village of 300 inhabitants, forms a separate school district.

Each sub-district elects three school directors, corresponding to our three trustees, but with subordinate powers, managing the school of their district under the regulations of the township board (to be mentioned presently), employing and dismissing the teacher, providing house, fuel, &c., and making all other provision for the convenience of their school, taking and reporting a school census of their sub-district once a year, &c. These three school directors elect one of themselves to be a clerk of the sub-district; he fulfilling the double office of Chairman and Secretary of the Trustees of a School Section with us—keeps the records, writes the notices, &c., &c.

The Township Board of Education consists of the township clerk, and that director of each sub-district who has been appointed clerk. This Board is a corporate body, holding all the school property of the township, providing buildings for the high school and coloured schools of the township, employing and dismissing the teachers, making rules for the government of all the schools of the township, prescribing and altering the limits of the sub-districts, provided that none shall have less than 60 scholars, unless under special circumstances. The school in every sub-district shall be of the grade prescribed by the township Board, which also prescribes the studies, text-books, and makes the rules for using and preserving the libraries, reports annually to the County Auditor the number of children in the township between 5 and 21, number and grade of schools, number and pay of teachers, number and condition of libraries, kinds of school books, expenditures, &c. Each teacher reports to the Township Board the number of children admitted, average attendance, studies and text-books, and such other information as may be directed by the State Superintendent, called "State Commissioner of Common Schools."

Remarks.—This duplicate School Trustee Board, and authority, in a township appears to me complicated, cumbrous, and inefficient, and not at all comparable to the more simple system of a Township board, or Commission, or Committee, which obtains in Pennsylvania and Massachusetts. The Township Board in Ohio selects the text-books, and makes the school regulations for the township—a duty for which it cannot be much more competent than the school directors of each sub-district, and which may and probably does produce diversity in this respect in the different townships, and which is inconsistent with a uniform standard and harmonious system throughout the State. All this can be done much better in every respect and for all parties and purposes by one Board or Council for the whole State.

The County Auditor is a sort of paymaster and accountant for the County, to whom reports are made by the Township Clerks, and who prepares and transmits them to the State Superintendent, with his own remarks on the state of the schools, libraries, and schoolhouses in the several townships in his county. I will hereafter give a specimen of the brief and graphic reports of these County Auditors,

County Boards of Examiners.—In each County, a Board of three Examiners is appointed, not by popular election, as in New York State, but by the Judge of Probate, to hold office for two years, any two of whom have power to examine and give certificates of qualifications to teachers. Each applicant for a certificate pays a fee of fifty cents as a pre-requisite to examination; and the certificate is valid only in that county, and for two years, and may be revoked at any time on proof of incompetency or negligence. The subjects included in such examination are Orthography, Writing, Reading, Arithmetic, English Grammar and Geography. Most of the cities and other separate school districts, have each a local Board of Examiners. The fees of applicants for certificates constitute a fund towards defraying the expenses of teachers' institutes,—a fund paid out of

the county treasury on the petition of not less than 40 teachers, who declare their intention to attend the institute. County Commissioners have power to appropriate a sum not exceeding \$100, where one half the amount required has been raised by those who ask the appropriation.

State Board of Examiners.—A State Board of Examiners, consisting of three gentlemen, distinguished for their learning and experience as instructors, is appointed by the State Commissioner. The present Board consists of Israel W. Andrews, of Marietta; Thomas Sterling, of Cleveland, and William Mitchell, of Columbus. This Board meets once a year. It held a session of two days at Toledo in 1864, at Cincinnati in 1865, and at Zanesville in 1866. This Board examines and grants certificates to teachers (both male and female) of eminent experience and ability. These certificates are valid during the life-time of each holder, unless revoked. The Examiners themselves hold State certificates. The State Commissioner, in his report for 1866, gives the names of those teachers who had obtained State certificates—only 13 (12 males and 1 female) during the years 1864 and 1865; 18 (15 males and three females) in 1866. The State Commissioner says: "The lists comprise the names of many of the most distinguished teachers in Ohio—men and women who, before applying for the State diploma, had already honored their profession, and whose qualifications had already been tested by many years of successful labor."

The State Commissioner of Schools stands at the head of the system, and is elected by the qualified voters of the State for three years; takes an oath of office, gives bonds, has the care and oversight of the school funds, superintends institutes, &c., &c., and makes an annual report to the Legislature.

Such is a brief outline of the machinery by which the school system in Ohio is carried on.

2.—OTHER INSTITUTIONS.

In regard to educational institutions, I find in the State Commissioner's report for 1866, the following institutions reported, besides Common Schools, namely: 19 University Colleges, with 137 professors and tutors, 4,740 students, and 220 graduates for the year.

Female Seminaries, 24, with 252 regular professors and teachers, 3,890 students, 185 graduated during the year.

Normal Schools and Academies, 29, with 166 regular teachers and 6,368 students.

Commercial Colleges, 9; teachers, 58; students, 2,622.

Private Schools reported, 649; teachers employed in them, 838; pupils enrolled, 24,382. High schools, 141; pupils, 9,582; teachers, 294, males 192, females 102.

I find here no report of the Institutions for the Deaf and Dumb and Blind at Columbus—institutions which I visited in the autumn of 1866, and which would be an honour and blessing to any country. New buildings for the institution for the Deaf and Dumb were approaching completion at an expense to the State of \$500,000!

3.—COMMON SCHOOL STATISTICS.

Territorial Divisions.—Townships, 1,346; separate school districts, cities, &c., 441; sub-school districts, 10,831.

Volumes in Libraries, 382,641; *value of school apparatus*, \$139,351.

Number of Teachers employed, 21,234; of whom 7,481 are males, and 13,753 are females.

Number of Common Schools, 11,413; increase, 6.

Number of "unmarried youth between 5 and 21 years of age," 974,303.

Number enrolled in the Common Schools, 706,730; average attendance, 415,142.

Average time of keeping open the Common Schools, 27 weeks, 2 days; high schools, 35 weeks.

School Moneys.—Receipts from School Fund, \$216,339; from State tax \$1,413,414; from local township and separate district tax, \$2,029,677; from fines, licenses, &c., \$111,190; grand total of moneys raised for school purposes during the year, \$3,770,620.

Expenditures.—For payment of teachers, \$2,869,606; for sites, buildings and repairs, \$480,116; for fuel and other contingent expenses, \$495,247; grand total of expenditures, \$3,836,970.

It will be observed that there is no expenditure for *libraries*. These were originally provided by the State, selected by the State Commissioner, and distributed *pro rata* to the several townships throughout the State, without any action on their part. The system has proved unsatisfactory, as people place little value on library books in which they have no part in selecting or procuring.

Reports on the condition of the school teachers, &c.—The following very candid and faithful remarks are by the State Commissioner himself in his report for 1866:

"The relative amount of school going secured, during the past year, in the sub-district schools, and the separate district schools may be stated from the previous tables in the following terms: In the sub-districts, eighty-five of every hundred youth enumerated, attend school, an average of 71 days. In the separate districts, fifty-five of every one hundred enumerated, attended school, on an average, 106 days.

"From these statements it appears that the relative amount of attendance on the public schools, in these two classes of schools, is nearly the same annually, being but little more than an average of 71 each year to three-fourths of the number of youth of legal school age. At this rate of schooling, it would require over twenty years to secure the minimum of a Common School education. In other words there has been accomplished, during the past year, only three fifths of the school work annually necessary to secure to the youth of the State the least amount of school attainments hitherto regarded as compatible with public safety."

"In the sub-districts, we have a school-house and a teacher to every sixty-three, and a school officer to every eighteen of the enumerated youth, and the schools are in session six months of the year. In the separate districts, comfortable schoolhouses are in sight of the houses of the pupils; and there is a school officer to every one hundred and fifty-two, a teacher to every hundred and nine of the enumerated youth, and the schools are in session, on an average, eight months and a half each year.

"The yearly expense of sustaining these agencies amounts to \$3,356,854, or three dollars and forty-four cents per capita of the enumerated youth, beside the funds amounting to nearly \$8,000,000, permanently invested in school property.

"The truth is, that so far as mere privileges are concerned, our school system is fully competent to give to every boy and girl in the State, an adequate knowledge of the six legal branches of an education; and liberal provisions are made for those who make proper exertions to acquire a knowledge of the higher branches."

4.—REASONS FOR UNSATISFACTORY RESULTS.—THE REMEDIES.

"Why, then, are the results accomplished every year so unsatisfactory? The answer is patent to every one who has examined our own and other school systems. We expend nearly all our school revenues, and direct nearly all our energies merely to provide school privileges; while literally *nothing is done, except by voluntary effort, to cause the youth of the State to avail themselves of the privileges offered.* Our school system is destitute, not only of all agencies, the special objects of which are to induce school going, but also of nearly all appliances, to render the instruction and discipline of the schools more valuable to the pupils that attend."

"For some years after the passage of the General School Law in 1853, a spirit of school rivalry pervaded the country districts. The divisions of townships into sub-districts, the building of new school-houses, the distribution of books and apparatus, the efforts of examiners to raise the standard of teacher's qualifications, and the unusual activity and zeal of the friends of the new school law, arrested public attention, and awakened the educational spirit of the people. The advocates of the new law looked with much hope to those provisions of the law providing for the establishment of township high schools, and the appointment of township acting managers of the schools. It was hoped that the gradation and supervision would both be generally introduced, that consolidation of smaller sub-districts would follow, that a higher order of teaching ability would be secured, and that, by these means, such a system of schools would be organized, in each township of the State, as would provide the means of a liberal education near the homes of our country youth. But subsequent events, and the present condition of the sub-district schools justify the assertion, that none of the results hoped for have been realized, except in a very few localities. No competent agency or system of agencies has been created by which the efficiency of the country schools may be increased, or the educational spirit of the people may be awakened and sustained. *The Country Schools are certainly no more*

efficient to-day than they were ten years ago, whether we consider the character of the teachers, the modes of instruction and discipline, or the per centage of school attendance."

"Township high schools have not been established even in localities where such schools are absolutely necessary. Sub-districts have not been consolidated, nor gradation introduced; on the contrary, the tendency has been and still is to sub-divide strong sub-districts, and thereby to create weak ones. The unfortunate results of this tendency are self-evident. The multiplication of sub-districts prevents gradation, increases the expenses, requires the employment of additional teachers and school officers, and the erection of additional school houses and out-buildings, and above all, encourages the employment of inferior teachers, and represses the educational spirit of teachers, pupils and parents.

"The appointment of acting managers by Township Boards, from whose supervision it was hoped something of uniformity in the organization and conduct of the schools would be secured, has also been neglected, since no proper provisions were made by which to pay competent persons to serve in this capacity. The returns of the past year show that in only one hundred and eighty-three townships [out of upwards of thirteen hundred] have acting managers been appointed, and in most cases these appointments were made conditioned that *the appointees were to serve gratuitously*; and no further duties required of them than to transmit such business of minor importance as might otherwise make it necessary to have called a meeting of the Board.

"The local directors (or trustees) who are generally the most public spirited men in the community, and to whose care the more immediate management of the school is entrusted, also serve without pay, and too often, when they have hired the teacher and made their annual contracts for repairs and fuel, rest from their labours until their signatures are called for to the certificate for the teacher's pay.

Furthermore, *over one third* of the teachers employed, every year, in the sub-district schools, are themselves mere boys and girls, being under twenty years of age. The labours of these youthful and inexperienced teachers are, in most instances, largely experimental, and are therefore necessarily detrimental to the public interests, to no inconsiderable extent. It is certainly safe to say, that over one third of the teachers annually employed in the country schools, have not had two years' experience. Almost the entire corps of teachers in the state is changed every three years; and those who, in the country schools, prove their adaptation to the work, and who desire to engage in it as a profession, soon seek and find situations in the city and town schools at greatly increased salaries. Moreover, *but few of the sub-district schools are taught two successive terms by the same teacher*. Of the *twenty-one thousand* teachers employed during the last year, only *two thousand five hundred and fifty* are reported as *having taught the same school during the year*."

What feasible means, then, may be adopted to secure better teaching in sub-district schools, and to inspire the boys and girls of our farmers with truer

motives and higher aims in the school work? The answer given to this enquiry, by both reason and successful example, is *supervision* and *gradation*. Supervision over *all the schools*, and gradation wherever the population is sufficiently dense to admit it. The gradation of the sub-district schools can be accomplished only by the dissemination, among the people and local school officers, of rational views of school organizations, by convincing those directly interested in the conduct of these schools, that by gradation greater efficiency and economy will be secured."

5.—SCHOOL HOUSES, LIBRARIES AND SCHOOLS.

Under this head, are reports from the auditors of the 84 Counties of the State. The teachers of each Township report to their Township Board of Education, and the Board of each Township reports to the County Auditor, who, from these reports compiles a report on the condition of the school-houses, libraries and schools of the several townships of his County, and transmits them to the State Commissioner of Common Schools.

According to these reports, many new school-houses have recently been erected and are in the course of erection, and the condition of the school-houses is manifestly improving, though a large proportion of them in the rural districts are anything but convenient and comfortable.

About twelve years ago the Legislature made a liberal appropriation of, I think, some three hundred thousand dollars for school libraries in townships. The books were to be selected and purchased by the State Commissioner, and distributed according to population to the several townships. The same books were selected for each township. In the absence of local choice and action in procuring these libraries, they seem, as a general rule, to have been unsuccessful, and are now for the most part considered out of date and useless.

In the first three County Auditors' reports, the following statements are made, and which, in one form or other, appear to be repeated in nine reports out of ten of the 84 counties: *Adams' County*—"Libraries in a very bad condition, the books very scattered all over the township, and no account taken of them." *Athens' County*—Libraries—"Reports of Clerks very limited, and I am convinced but little regard or attention is given to them." *Ashland County*—"The reports place libraries in a hopeless condition. Many townships have no librarian, no one being willing to act." In one County it is reported: "The only call for the books seems to be limited to the annual report of the County Auditor." In another County, the Auditor reports: "There seems to be a prevailing disposition to treat them as *trash*, that every one wishes to get rid of." In another County, the Auditor reports: "The books are, perhaps, well cared for, as each family lucky enough to have any of them, considers them as belonging to the household, but as township *libraries*, the books might as well be in *Oregon*."

These facts show how useless is the largest liberality on the part of the Legislature in school matters without local co-operation, and especially in regard to books, which are never valued in townships or neighbourhoods unless sought for and, partially at least, procured by the inhabitants themselves.

The condition of the schools in many counties is represented as improving; encouraging and satisfactory, and the character and qualifications of teachers as improving; but in others, passages like the following occur in the Auditors reports: *Coshocton County*—"Teachers' salaries are so low that our best teachers have sought a more remunerative employment, and consequently we have a low grade of teachers." *Hancock County*—"Many of our best teachers have quit the business, on account of the extreme low wages, and our schools are generally taught by young and inexperienced teachers."

Many of these County Auditors' reports are curiosities in their way. I give two of them entire, taken as they stand together from the 145th page of the State Commissioner's report:—

Carroll County.—School-Houses—School-houses in this County are of several classes. About one-fourth of the houses are pretty good, and built with a view for comfort for the children; and about one half of the houses are poor, miserably constructed things—small, dark, low ceiling, dirty holes, not fit to put children into; and the balance would make tolerable sheep stables.

"*Libraries*—Generally good, but not used to any extent; mostly locked up in the Librarian's house.

"*Schools*—Not very good; about in keeping with the above description of school-houses.

Cuyahoga County.—School-Houses—No facts in this office upon which to base a statement or hazard an opinion.

"*Libraries*—No particular information. Presumed to be bad; growing out of a want of proper care.

"*Schools*—No facts upon which to base even a guess."

6—.TOWNSHIP BOARDS RECOMMENDED.

Since my report was written, and while it is going through the press, I have received from the State School Commissioner of Ohio his report for the year 1867, in which he discusses at large the propriety of abolishing the sub-school districts, or school sections, and establishing Township Boards. He commences his elaborate and, I think, conclusive argumentation of the question, with the following remarks:—

"Previous to the adoption of the school code now in force, most of the leading advocates of the new law were anxious to adopt what was commonly known as the township or district system, whereby each township would be constituted a school district proper, without sub-divisions; while others were of the opinion that the old independent sub-district system should be continued. The result was a compromise, and the adoption of the present law having the distinctive features of both systems, and at the same time having the proper advantages of neither and possessing many of the weaknesses of both. Though the present law is infinitely better than the old one, yet the blending of the township or district system with the sub-district system has proved cumbersome, complicated

and detrimental to the school interests of the country districts. A brief examination of the provisions of the law and of the practical operations of these provisions will readily show the propriety of abolishing the sub-district features of the law and of adopting the township system without modifications."

XXIV—REMARKS ON AMERICAN SYSTEMS OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

1.—GENERAL EXCELLENCE OF THE CITY AND TOWN SCHOOLS.

In the foregoing epitome of the systems and state of popular instruction in several neighbouring States, I have said little of what has been done or is doing in cities and towns. The reason is that the schools are organized in the cities and towns, for the most part by special Acts, and not under the general school laws of the States. Taken as a whole, I do not think, from my best observations and enquiries, that there is any country in the world in whose cities and towns (except Leipsic in Saxony) the systems of education are so complete and efficient as in the neighbouring States, especially in Boston, Providence, New York, Philadelphia, &c. There is one Board in each city charged with the education of a large population, from the primary schools up to the highest English and scientific schools, and classical schools preparatory to the University, and to the professions, and to foreign commerce. In each of these cities, and in each of many of the towns, there is but one set of regulations, and one series of school text-books; there are classical schools and teachers, and some of the cities have their own Normal Schools for the training of their own teachers, with libraries, &c. In the style, arrangements and furniture of their school buildings, in the character and salaries of their teachers, and in every provision for the education of all classes of citizens, there is a manifest earnestness, an intelligence, and princely liberality truly admirable and patriotic. Nothing but a personal visit and inspection can convey an adequate idea of the comprehensiveness, completeness, and even in some instances, grandeur of the establishments and systems of education in the cities, and in not a few towns of our American neighbours. And where there are *private* and *select* schools and seminaries in those cities and towns, they have to be conducted in the most efficient manner possible in order to maintain an existence in competition with the excellent public schools.

2.—THE CITIZEN'S RECOGNIZED RIGHT TO EDUCATION.

There is another educational feature common to all the neighbouring States, and worthy of the highest respect and admiration: it is the recognition of the right of every citizen to the means of a good education, and the obligations of

the State to provide for it. This is an article in the constitution of several of the States, and is recognized by a liberal provision in setting apart the proceeds of the sales of one-sixth or seventh of their public lands to form a school fund for universal education. This has been followed up by school laws, framed in the same spirit and with the same design; very large sums of money have been raised and expended, and a net-work of schools has been spread over the land.

3.—INADEQUATE RESULTS FROM AMERICAN COUNTRY SCHOOLS.

But here, in most of the States, the work has begun to halt, and the patriotic objects of its projectors have been disappointed. The State has acknowledged, and nobly endeavoured to redeem, its obligation to provide an education for its every child; but it has not provided that every child should qualify himself by such an education for citizenship. It has placed the right of the parent or guardian and of the employer or master to perpetuate ignorance, above the right of the child to be educated. It has made universal suffrage the lever to lift the masses to universal education and intelligence, in the absence of the requisite educational power to move that lever. Nor is there any adequate provision to secure the operations of a school in a single neighbourhood, much less to secure properly qualified teachers where schools are established. The result is, that when you leave the cities and large towns, and go into the rural parts of the State—the peculiar field of a national school law and system—you there find that our American neighbours are not so successful in their public school economy, and accomplish results very far below and short of the State appropriations they make, and the machinery they employ for the sound education of all the people. This remark is abundantly and painfully confirmed by the facts given in the above epitome of the systems and state of popular education in the adjoining States of Ohio, Pennsylvania and New York. A further confirmation of the same remark is found in the defective education of many of the grown-up young men of these States. The late Frederic H. Pakard, Esq., of Philadelphia, for some thirty years the distinguished and philanthropic Secretary of the American Sunday School Union, published, in 1866, a pamphlet of 158 pages entitled “The Daily Public School in the United States.” On page 11, he observes, “Such observations as we have been enabled to make in interviews with many thousands of children and youth, satisfy us that nine in ten of them are incompetent to read properly a paragraph in the newspaper, to keep a simple debit and credit account in a mechanic’s shop, or to write an ordinary business letter in a creditable way, as to chirography, orthography, or a grammatical expression of ideas.”

In this same publication it is stated by a Chaplain in the Northern army during the late civil war, and whose intercourse was very extensive, “that a very large majority of the soldiers from the Northwestern States could read and write; but of these many could read only very imperfectly, and composed a letter with great difficulty. Union soldiers from slave States were deplorably destitute of Common School education. Thousands of soldiers learned to read and write while in the army. In my own Sunday-school of 150 to 250 from my own regiment, I found that a large number were poor readers. The same I

found true of schools in other regiments. The letter-writing shewed that the writers were very imperfectly instructed in orthography. The average age of the soldiers I met, was certainly under thirty years. In a word, our soldiers, in their education, show that a great improvement is needed in our common schools."

At a public meeting held at the Cooper Institute, New York, in October, 1865, a member of the bar, of large acquaintance with all classes of society, stated, that the ability to read and write was by no means as general as was supposed, and in proof of it, he mentioned that he had occasion to issue subpoenas to 40 persons, of whom 30 made their marks.

4.—CAUSES OF FAILURE IN AMERICAN COUNTRY SCHOOLS.

Such an imperfect state and deficiency of sound education could hardly be otherwise, where the schools are kept open from four to six months in the year by boys and girls from 16 to 20 years of age, themselves poorly educated,* and when so large a number of children of school age do not attend school at all, as shown by the official statistics given in the foregoing pages in regard to the adjoining States. And I find in a note on the 12th page of the publication above quoted the following statement: "It is not irrelevant to state, that by the latest report of the New Jersey Schools, it appears that of 190,000 children of school age in the State, less than 29,000 were in attendance upon the school during the year. The average attendance of those enrolled was less than 25 per cent, while 50,000 did not enter the school at all. The number of teachers employed was one to about one hundred pupils. The pay of males was at the rate of \$36 per month, and the females a little over \$22. Cost per head, including all expenses, \$3."

The inference from these facts is, that there may be a magnificent school system, and a vast and even universal machinery of schools, and yet numbers of youth not educated at all, and of those who attend the schools, many learn very little, and that very imperfectly.

The practical lesson which we may learn from these facts is, that we must do something more than merely establish and keep open schools a portion of the year, in order to educate a whole people.

Furthermore, the foregoing facts suggest the enquiry—an enquiry in which we, as Canadians, are deeply interested—to what cause or imperfections in American systems of popular education are so much educational failure and deficiency in the rural parts of the States to be attributed? The subject is too extensive for discussion; but I will indicate two or three causes which have been impressed upon my own mind.

1. *The first is a deficiency in the qualifications of teachers.* There cannot be a good school without a good teacher. There must then be provision against the employment of ill-qualified teachers, and for securing good ones. In the neighbouring States, there is no State standard of a teacher's qualifications,

* See remarks of the Pennsylvania Superintendent on page 164.

though, in one instance, there is a State Board; there is no State programme for the examination of teachers; in most instances, the Boards of Examiners of teachers, are not only local, but are elected by county or township universal suffrage, and each local Board thus chosen fixes its own standard and makes its own conditions and regulations for the licensing of teachers. In some States the Trustees of each School examine and certify to the qualifications of the teacher, as well as employ him; in other places, a Township Superintendent, elected by universal suffrage; in other instances, a Township Committee or Board is elected for the double purpose of examining teachers and employing them. But even in Ohio, where there is a County Board of three examiners, appointed by the Judges of Probate, there is no uniformity of standard, or of strictness in the examination of teachers. I observe in one County, out of 492 applications for certificates, 138 were rejected; and in another County, out of 258 applications, only *one* was rejected—showing that the examination could have scarcely amounted to even a matter of form, and this variation goes on throughout the whole 88 Counties of the State. In 1864, out of 19,346 certificates given, upwards of one-half of them were given for six months; and in 1866, out of 18,756 certificates given, 7,651, or upwards of one-third of them, were for six months—showing the large extent to which the employment of teaching is regarded as temporary. The State Commissioner states the results of such deficiencies in his report for 1866, in the following words: "No one can visit the country schools, hear the recitations, observe the discipline, examine the teacher's records, and look upon the cheerless interior and exterior of the school-rooms, without a most depressing conviction of the inferior advantages enjoyed by the pupils, and the unfavourable educational influences by which they are surrounded."

2. The *second* cause of this deficiency in the country Common Schools of our American neighbours, appears to me to be, the *temporary employment and insufficient remuneration of teachers*. This is indeed the chief cause of the "low grade of teachers," and the still lower grade of the schools. In both Ohio and Pennsylvania, more than one half of the country schools are kept open only four months of the year; and this is the case in many country parts of New York. The teachers are employed there, not as in their cities and towns, and with us generally throughout the whole Province, by the year, but *by the month*. Their "wages," (or salaries as we call them,) are only for the months that the schools are kept open. For those months, a male teacher may receive from twenty-five to forty dollars a month, and a female teacher one-third and sometimes one-half less: and the other eight, or six, or five months of the year, as the case may be, the teachers must and do receive nothing, or seek other employments. Thus the country male teachers, do school teaching work when they can procure it to best advantage, and farm or other manual work of some kind the other larger part of the year; and the female teachers do likewise. Now, whatever may be the liberality of the Legislature, and the framework of the school system, and the patriotic aspirations and efforts of great numbers of citizens, in such a system of temporarily employing and perpetually changing

teachers, there can be no material improvement in either the qualifications of teachers or the efficiency of the schools, or the education of the country youth ; but the lamentations in the annual Reports of State Commissioners and Superintendents will, in my opinion, be the next ten years what they have been the last ten years.

In Ontario there is much room for improvement in these respects ; but we have a national programme for the examination and distinct classification of teachers, and nearly uniform methods of examination ; our teachers, except in comparatively few cases of trial, are almost universally employed by the year, in the townships equally with the cities and towns. By our method of giving aid to no school unless kept open six months of the year, and aiding all schools in proportion to the average attendance of pupils and length of time the school is kept open, we have succeeded in getting our schools throughout the whole country kept open nearly eleven months out of the twelve ; the teachers are thus constantly employed, and paid annual salaries ; and are as well paid, all things considered, in perhaps a majority of the country schools as in cities and towns. Some of our best teachers are employed in country schools, a very large proportion of which will favourably compare, in style and fittings of school-house, and efficiency of teaching, with the schools in cities and towns. Indeed for several years at the commencement of our school system, the country parts of Upper Canada took the lead, with few exceptions, of our cities, towns, and villages. Our deficiencies and shortcomings in these respects I shall plainly point out hereafter ; but they appear to me to be more palpable, and to exist to a vastly greater, and even fatal extent, among our American neighbours,—so worthy of our admiration in many of their industries and enterprises.

3. A *third* and fruitful cause of inefficiency in the American systems of popular instruction, appears to me, to be the *mode of appointing the administrators of their school systems, and their tenure of office*. In all the neighbouring States, the mode of appointing their State Superintendents has been by popular universal suffrage vote, and for a period not exceeding three years, and in some instances not exceeding two years ; in the election of their County or Town Superintendents the same system has been pursued. In New York and Pennsylvania a beneficial change has been introduced in regard to the appointment of their State Superintendents—in the former the State Superintendent being appointed by the joint ballot of the Senate and House of Representatives, and in the latter by the Executive with the advice of the Senate ; but the tenure of office in both States is for three years, as it is in the State of Ohio, where the State Commissioner of Common Schools is still elected by universal suffrage throughout the State. In looking at the School history of these States for the last twenty years, there are very few, if any, instances of any one of these highest educational officers continuing in office more than three years at a time. There is no department of civil government in which careful preparation, varied study and observation, and independent and uniform action, are so important to success and efficiency, as in founding, maturing and developing a system of public instruction ; which it is utterly impossible to do where no one placed at

the head of the system has time or opportunity to establish and bring into effective operation any one branch of it. School legislation, therefore, with our American neighbours is as unsettled now, as it was at the beginning of the last twenty years and more; it has been undergoing successive modifications; and their schools (except in cities and towns) are less improved than their country in every other respect. They seem to forget that the *representative* functions of government,—the power to exercise which is based on popular election—relate chiefly to the *making* of laws, and the *imposition of taxes*; but that the *administration* of law should be free from the influences of popular passion, and be based on immutable maxims of justice and patriotism. They recognize this in the selection and appointment of their supreme judges of constitutional and civil law; so should they in the supreme administration of school law, and in the development of school economy. Should their State School Superintendents, after being carefully selected, hold their offices during pleasure—another word with us for during good behaviour and efficiency—there would be much more hope and certainty of maturing and efficiently consolidating their school systems.

Our American friends appear to me to suffer equally, if not more, in their educational interests from their love of rotation of office and frequent popular election to it, in respect to their county and town Superintendents of schools. Their system appears to me to be inconsistent, as a general rule, with the selection of competent superintendents, or with the impartial and thorough administration of the law, among those by whom the local superintendents are elected or opposed, and to whom such superintendents are looking for votes at an approaching election. Under the operations of such a system, it appears to me there must frequently be as much electioneering as school superintendence and administration; that the latter will often be warped to advance the former; or, as is expressed in an American report, that there will be much “log rolling and pipe-laying” to secure the universal suffrage of election or re-election to the office, at the expense of the advancement and elevation of the schools.

4. In the *fourth* place, I think the progress and efficiency of the common schools in the neighbouring States are also much impeded by *the absence of anything like a uniform series of text-books*, the great evils of the endless variety of which are graphically portrayed and earnestly lamented in their school reports, but for the removal of which no remedy is provided.

Such appears to me the chief defects in the American School systems, so far as I have been able to examine and observe them. In a former part of this report, I have stated what appeared to me the cardinal defects of the English elementary school system, as compared with that of other European Countries; and I trust our American neighbours will not regard the above remarks as proceeding from any other than the most friendly feelings, and a sincere desire to advance the best interests of universal education.

XXV.—BRIEF NOTICES OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEMS OF OTHER AND NEW STATES OF AMERICA.

Since the foregoing pages were written I have received from the Hon. V. M. Rice, the able and excellent Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of New York, a "Special Report" presented by him to the Legislature the 15th of last month, "On the Present State of Education in the United States and other Countries, and on Compulsory Instruction." I will extract from this valuable report the following notices of school systems in several other States than those mentioned in the preceding pages of this Report. The school laws of these mostly new States contain some curious provisions, and concentrate extraordinary powers in single individuals. I omit statistics. These abridged notices will be found very interesting—showing that Common School education for the whole people, in the new States as in the old, is justly regarded as one of the first duties of the State, and is liberally provided for.

1.—STATE OF INDIANA.

"There is a State Board of Education, consisting of the Governor, Secretary of State, State Treasurer and Auditor, the Attorney-General and the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, who meet annually for conference, discussion and the determination of questions arising under the school law. The Superintendent is elected by the people for two years, and has the general oversight of the schools, and must spend at least one day a year in each county. There is in each township a trustee, who has the general custody and management of the school property and lands, and a limited power to levy taxes for building school-houses. He also each year enumerates the children in his township between the ages of five and twenty-one. The inhabitants of each school district elect for a year a school director, who takes care of the school-house, provides fuel, employs the teachers and reports to the trustee. Common schools must be organized as a State institution, and, as to tuition, supported wholly by State funds. No district, no township, no town, no city, no county, can levy and collect taxes from the people for the support of schools. Townships, towns and cities may levy taxes for the construction and repair of school-houses, and for the providing of furniture and fuel therefor, and for the purchase of sites; but the State alone can levy taxes for the payment of teachers. The schools in each township are to be taught an equal length of time, without regard to the diversity in the number of pupils therein, or to the wealth of the township. There is to be assessed each year the sum of ten cents on each \$100 of taxable property, and fifty cents on each poll (except upon the property and polls of negroes and mulattoes, who have none of the benefits of this Act) for the use of common schools.

"The school fund is made up of all the funds heretofore appropriated to common schools, the surplus revenue, soldier, bank, tax, and seminary funds all

finer, forfeitures, and escheats; all grants of land not otherwise specially devoted; the net proceeds of the swamp lands; unclaimed fees, and of all taxes specially laid therefor. The income of the fund is apportioned to the several Counties of the State, according to the enumeration of the children therein between five and twenty-one years of age." The school fund is estimated at \$7,778,356. 94, of which \$4,286,110. 62 is unproductive, and the residue yields seven per cent. per annum."

2.—STATE OF ILLINOIS.

"There is a State Superintendent of Public Instruction who has the general and supervisory agency of the Common School system. Each County chooses a School Commissioner, whose duty it is to visit the schools, examine the teachers and grant certificates. Each town elects a Trustee, who has power to create and alter Districts, a Collector, Treasurer, and Librarian. Every District elects three Directors, who hold office for three years, and have the sole control and management of District affairs, with power to levy taxes for building school houses, and they are required every year to enumerate the children between the ages of five and twenty-one in their Districts, and the number of persons under twenty-one."

"Every District is required to maintain a school six months in a year to entitle it to its share in the distribution of the public money. Total School Fund—\$4,973,042."

3.—STATE OF MICHIGAN.

Every organized Township must be divided into Districts, but no primary districts can contain more than nine sections of land.

"Each district, at the first meeting, elects a moderator for three years, a director for two years, and an assessor for one year, and their successors are each elected for three years."

The district is a body corporate, and has power to designate a site for a school-house, and may vote taxes to pay for the same, and to build a school-house and keep it in repair, and may also vote \$20 a year for the purchase of books of reference, apparatus, &c."

"The moderator, director and assessor form a district board, that has the care and custody of the school-house and property; that hires the teacher, and has immediate management and control of school affairs."

"Each township elects two inspectors, who, with the township clerk, form a board of inspectors, whose duty it is to divide the township into districts, to examine and license teachers, and to visit and supervise the schools."

There is a State Superintendent of Public Instruction, who has general supervision of the public schools, and he and three other persons elected each for six years, form a State Board of Education."

"The director of each district annually makes an enumeration of all children within the district, between the ages of five and twenty years, and returns it,

with a report of the condition of the schools, to the township clerk, who makes an abstract of the district reports for the county clerk, who makes copies of them for the State Superintendent."

"The Constitution directs that all fines assessed and collected in the townships and counties shall be applied to the establishment of a township library."

"A school fund is created, consisting of all lands granted by Congress or the State, or given by deed or devise for school purposes, and of all lands that escheat to the State for want of heirs."

"Funds are also created for the support of a University, in which tuition is free, and for a Normal School."

"The educational funds of the State were reported in 1865 to be—

Primary School Fund.....	\$2,040,085
University Fund.....	535,412
Normal School Fund.....	65,876
Total.....	<u>\$2,641,373</u>

4—STATE OF WISCONSIN.

"There is a State Superintendent of Public Instruction, who has the general supervision of common schools. He is required to visit the several Counties of the State, and advise with teachers and school officers; to recommend text books and advise as to the selection of books for school libraries; to examine and determine appeals; to apportion the school moneys among the counties, according to the number of children in the several towns and cities over four and under twenty-one years of age, and to report annually to the Legislature. He can appoint an assistant, and his travelling expenses and clerk hire are paid."

"The board of supervisors divide the towns into districts, and can alter them at pleasure."

"The legal voters in a district have power to choose a director, treasurer and clerk; to designate a site; to vote taxes for the purchase of sites; for building or leasing school-houses; for the payment of teachers' wages; for the purchase of books for a library, and of maps, globes and apparatus, and to determine how long school shall be kept, and on what terms the public money shall be applied."

"The director, treasurer and clerk constitute a district board, who have charge of district affairs. The clerk hires the teacher, with the approval of the director and treasurer, and draws warrants on the treasurer, countersigned by the director, for all moneys due for teacher's wages."

"In every district school there must be taught the English language, orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography and arithmetic."

"The district clerk every year makes a statistical report to the town clerk, who in his turn reports to the County Superintendent, who compiles an abstract of the town reports for the State Superintendent."

"Every district is required to keep a school for three months to entitle it to any share in the distribution of the public money."

"A County Superintendent is elected, whose term of office is two years, and whose duty it is to examine and license teachers, to visit and inspect the schools, to organize and conduct teachers' institutes and associations, and to report annually to the State Superintendent."

"The board of supervisors of every county are required every year to cause to be collected in every town and ward, by tax, an amount of money for the support of schools not less than half the amount apportioned to such town and ward the previous year by the State Superintendent, and not exceeding three mills upon every dollar of the valuation of the taxable property therein; and unless this is done no public money is to be apportioned to the delinquent county for the current year."

"The school fund on the 30th September, 1864, amounted to \$2,118,423.56, drawing seven per cent. interest."

"The State has also established a Normal School fund, estimated at \$1,128,246, of which \$594,581.87, is productive. This fund and the Normal Schools are placed under charge of a Board of Regents of Normal Schools."

5.—STATE OF IOWA.

"Every civil township is a school district, and is divided by the trustees into sub-districts. Each district holds an annual meeting, elects a chairman and secretary; decides by vote upon the purchase and sale of sites and school-houses, upon the branches to be taught in the schools, and upon what powers shall be delegated to the board of directors; and may vote a tax, not exceeding five mills on a dollar of valuation, for school purposes."

"The sub-districts hold annual meetings and choose officers called sub-directors, who constitute a board of directors for the district, with corporate powers, and who have the power to fix the sites of school-houses and to establish schools. They elect a president, secretary and treasurer. They estimate the amount of money necessary to keep school in the district for the legal term of twenty-four weeks, and certify the amount to the board of supervisors; and they also certify such sum as the electors of any district or sub-district may have voted beyond the amount required by law. The board of supervisors cause such taxes to be levied and collected. Each sub-director has charge of his sub-district, hires the teacher, and makes all contracts for fuel, furniture, &c., subject to the approval of the board; and he is required to report to the board the number of persons in his sub-district between the ages of five and twenty-one years, distinguishing between males and females, and giving other information required by law."

"There is a County Superintendent elected for two years, whose duty it is to examine and license teachers, visit and supervise schools, to receive the reports from the districts, and make and report to the Superintendent of Public Instruction an abstract of them, and to act as the organ of communication between the State Superintendent and the district authorities."

"The school month consists of four weeks, and the school year of twenty-four weeks.

"The Auditor of the State apportions the income of the school fund to the counties, according to the proportion of persons in each between the ages of five and twenty-one years.

"There is a Superintendent of Public Instruction elected by the people for two years. He is charged with the general supervision of all the County Superintendents, and all the Common Schools of the State; he decides appeals from the decisions of the County Superintendents, and reports annually to the Legislature.

"All land granted by the United States for schools, the 500,000 acres granted by Congress to new States, all escheats, the per centage on sales of land in the State, money paid for exemption from military duty, and fines for breach of penal laws, are devoted to the support of Common Schools and constitute the school fund. The fund in 1857 amounted to \$2,030,544, nominally, and the unsold lands to 619,940 acres. The fund is under the control of the General Assembly. The moneys belonging to the fund are loaned at ten per cent."

6.—STATE OF MINNESOTA.

"The towns and sub-districts, as divided by the County Commissioners, are declared to be corporate bodies, with power to elect a Director, Treasurer and Clerk, who are the Trustees of the district. The Director has immediate charge of the schools. The Treasurer receives and pays out all school moneys. The Clerk records the proceedings of district meetings and of the board, and makes annually to the county auditor a report of all persons in the district between the ages of five and twenty-one years, and other statistical information.

"The districts have power to vote money for the support of schools, and the clerk certifies the amount voted to the county auditor, who assesses and levies it upon the real and personal property of the district.

"The County Commissioners appoint annually a man in each county to examine and license teachers, and visit the schools. They are also required each year to levy a tax equal to one-fifth of one per cent. on the dollar of valuation, to be collected and expended for the support of schools.

"The several districts of the State are entitled to their share of the public money on the condition of making their annual report, no time being limited during which school shall be kept.

"The Secretary of State is *ex-officio* Superintendent of Public Instruction, and makes the apportionment of the income of the school fund. The County Commissioners (supervisors) are authorized to appoint at their discretion a county Superintendent, with power to examine and license teachers, to organize and conduct institutes and teachers' associations, and to have generally the supervision of the schools; to receive the district reports and make an abstract of the same for the State Superintendent. Twenty-two counties have appointed County Superintendents.

"One-eighteenth part of all the public lands in the State, or two sections in every township, amounting in all to about 2,800,000 acres, were granted to the State by Congress for the support of common schools. But a small portion of these lands has yet been sold, and the available fund is not large. The Superintendent estimates that, if the future sales equal in amount per acre those heretofore made, the income derived from the fund will not be less than one million dollars annually."

7.—STATE OF KANSAS.

"Supervision is provided, first, by the election of a State Superintendent of Public Instruction for two years, and a County Superintendent for the same term.

"The State Superintendent is required to visit each county at least once a year; to file and keep all reports made to him; to recommend text-books for the use of schools; to apportion the public money among the several counties according to the number of children between five and twenty-one years of age, and to make an annual report to the Legislature.

The County Superintendent divides the county into districts, apportions the school money to them, visits the schools, examines and licenses teachers, and reports annually to the State Superintendent.

"Each district elects yearly a Director, Clerk, and Treasurer, who constitute a District Board, and each district thus organized forms a corporate body. The Board has power to purchase sites, hire teachers, and have the control and management of the schools and school property. The Clerk of each district makes the annual statistical report to the County Superintendent.

"The male and female inhabitants of the district are allowed to vote at district meetings, and they have power to vote taxes for the payment of teachers' wages, for the purchase of sites and building of school-houses, and the purchase of black-boards and apparatus for the schools."

"The school fund consists of the public lands granted by Congress for the support of schools. Only a small part has yet been sold and become productive. The estates of persons dying without heirs or will are also to be added to the fund. The school land amounts to 2,844,444 acres, and the law of the State fixes three dollars as a minimum price at which it shall be sold."

8.—STATE OF CALIFORNIA.

"The Constitution of the State provides for the election of a Superintendent of Public Instruction, to hold his office for four years. It also requires the Legislature to provide a system of Common Schools, by which a school shall be kept in each district for three months in the year, for neglect of which the district is to forfeit its proportion of the interest of the public fund."

"The Legislature has created a Board of Education, composed of the Governor, the Superintendent of Public Instruction, &c."

"The Board have power to adopt a course of study for the public schools; to prescribe a list of books suitable for district libraries, to grant life diplomas to teachers, to prescribe regulations for the examination of teachers, and to adopt uniform text books."

"The Superintendent visits and superintends the schools and educational institutions of the State, apportions the public money to the districts, cities and counties, and makes to the Legislature, biennially, a report upon the condition of the schools and the administration of the school system."

9.—STATE OF OREGON.

"The organic law of Oregon provides that the Governor of the State shall act as Superintendent of Public Instruction, unless the Legislature shall order otherwise. No powers seem to be given to him, except that of appeal, in certain cases, from the County Superintendent. Together with the Secretary of State and the Treasurer, he is one of a Board of Commissioners for the sale of School and University lands, and the investment of funds derived therefrom.

"The County Superintendent shall be elected for a term of two years, and shall receive such salary, not less than fifty or more than five hundred dollars, as the County Court shall order. He has power to fix the boundaries of districts, to establish new ones on petition, to collect or cause to be collected the moneys due to his County for school purposes, and apportion the result among the districts in his charge. Certificates to teach shall be granted by him, and he has power to fix the grade of teachers. The school lands are supervised by him, and it is made his duty to visit the schools once in six months."

"Districts are organized by the meeting of six or more electors, who shall select three directors and a clerk, under whose management the schools are placed. No teacher may be employed who has not a certificate, which in certain cases may be granted by the Governor. The district clerk shall keep the accounts of the district, and shall act as the attorney for them in all suits. School must be kept six hours and a half daily. The law provides for registers of progress of scholars."

"The proceeds of all lands and bequests which shall be granted to the State for educational purposes shall be forever kept for that purpose, in addition to all money accruing to the State from escheat or forfeiture. The five hundred thousand acres which were granted to this State by Congress are devoted to school uses, and the five per cent. of the net proceeds of the sales of the public lands. These sources shall together make a consolidated fund, irreducible and separate, to be appropriated for the use of the Common Schools. The County Court, in addition, shall levy a tax of two mills on the dollar, yearly, to be collected at the same time and in the same way as other taxes. Districts have power to tax for school purposes also."

10.—STATE OF NEVADA.

"The State of Nevada has made very liberal provisions for the education of the children of its community. Two sections of land are reserved in each

township for the use of the schools, besides the revenue derived from various taxes and privileges belonging to the State. These are reinforced by taxes levied for this direct purpose, and the County is also empowered to provide in the same manner."

11.—SCHOOL FUNDS OF THE SEVERAL STATES AS LATE AS JANUARY 1, 1859.

Alabama.....	\$1,425,933
Arkansas.....	None.
California.....	739,487
Connecticut.....	2,044,672
Delaware.....	440,506
Florida.....	None.
Georgia.....	440,900
Illinois.....	4,109,476
Indiana.....	4,912,012
Iowa.....	1,000,000
Kentucky.....	1,455,332
Louisiana.....	1,036,500
Maine.....	149,085
Maryland.....	181,167
Massachusetts.....	1,522,898
Michigan.....	1,384,288
Minnesota.....	Lands.
Mississippi.....	
Missouri.....	595,668
New Hampshire.....	None.
Nevada.....	Lands.
New Jersey.....	437,754
New York.....	6,775,889
North Carolina.....	2,181,850
Ohio.....	2,500,000
Oregon.....	Lands.
Pennsylvania.....	None.
Rhode Island.....	299,436
South Carolina.....	None.
Tennessee.....	584,060
Texas.....	2,192,000
Vermont.....	None.
Virginia.....	1,677,652
Wisconsin.....	2,358,791
Total, January 1, 1849.....	\$21,420,275
do 1859.....	40,445,356

XXVI.—SUGGESTIONS FOR THE FURTHER IMPROVEMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN ONTARIO.

Many suggestions which I might here offer have been anticipated by the general remarks which I have made on European and American Systems of popular education. I will therefore limit myself, under this head, to as few and brief remarks as possible.

I do not suggest at present any material amendment of our Grammar School Law; or any amendment of the general provisions of our Consolidated Common School Act: or any change in the mode of appointing any officers authorized to administer it. But I do submit to the calm and favourable consideration of the friends of universal education, both in and out of the Legislature, certain modifications in some of the details and practical applications of our school system.

1.—COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS.

Whether the Local Superintendent of schools should not invariably be a County Superintendent, except where the county is so large as to require a second or Assistant Superintendent, and whether the practice of having Township Superintendents should not cease. I know that each County Council now has the option, to a certain extent, of appointing a county Superintendent or township Superintendents; but by local influences many County Councillors are prevented from exercising their own best judgment in the matter, and are morally forced to make township appointments, even when they do not approve of them. Our American neighbours have thoroughly tried both systems; and New York and Pennsylvania have entirely renounced the township Superintendent system and adopted the system of county Superintendency; and the State Commissioner of Ohio (where a township inspection system has been attempted) devotes upwards of fourteen pages of his last Annual Report to urging the adoption of the County Superintendent system. He says: "Our system of township supervision by means of acting managers of schools has proved a lamentable failure. Similar systems in other States have also uniformly failed: Any system of supervision for the country schools must necessarily fail that does not make provision for the employment of competent superintendents whose entire energies are given to the work." The value of local supervision through the agency of County Superintendents, has been tested in other States. Pennsylvania adopted the system in 1854, New York in 1856, Wisconsin, Illinois, Kansas, Maryland, California, West Virginia, and perhaps other States subsequently; and from each of these States the gratifying intelligence comes that it has proved the most valuable feature of their school system. The Hon. J. P. Wickersham, the present Superintendent of Public Instruction in Pennsylvania, says: "County Superintendents were first elected in this State in 1854, and it is not claiming too much for the office to say that it has vitalized the whole system. To it more

than to any other agency, or to all other agencies combined, we owe our educational progress during the last twelve years." I need not multiply numerous similar testimonies on this point.

2.--QUALIFICATIONS OF COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS.

In immediate connection with, and as a second part of the foregoing suggestion, I would submit that the appointment of local superintendent ought to be restricted to a person who has, at least, the qualifications of a first-class teacher, and who has had experience in teaching, and who will, therefore, be able to manipulate a school himself, and aid the less experienced teacher by example, as well as counsel, to manage and teach his or her school. It will have been seen, that in the State of Pennsylvania, the selection of the County Superintendent is not only vested in the "school directors of the several counties," but is restricted to "a person of literary and scientific acquirements and of skill and experience in teaching." In England so much importance is attached to the qualifications of inspectors, that only men of a University Standing are appointed; and it will have been seen in the former part of this report, that the chief instrument of the marvellous success and efficiency of the system of popular instruction in Holland and other Continental countries, is the selection of able and practical men as School Inspectors, whom, the venerated founder of the Holland School system told the French School Commissioner, "should besought as with a lighted candle." I have been assured by many County Councillors, that they would consider the authoritative defining of a local superintendent's qualifications for office, as a great help in enabling them to resist improper electioneering pressure, and in the selection of the best qualified men for that important work. The appointment should of course, be during pleasure—virtually during good behaviour and efficiency.

3.—CONSTITUTION OF COUNTY BOARDS OF EXAMINERS.

I think a great improvement may also be made in the constitution of County Boards of Examiners, or of Public Instruction, as they are called. In England the examiners to award scholarships in Colleges, or offices in the Indian service, founded on competitive examination, or any scholastic honour, or bursaries, are never more than three, often not more than two, sometimes only one. In the State of Ohio, under the new law, the County Board of Examiners of teachers consists of only three, appointed, not by popular election, but by the Judge of Probate; and even the State Board of Examiners for the State and life certificates to teachers, consists of but three, appointed by the State Commissioner. I think, therefore, if each County Board of Public Instruction, which is simply a Board of Examiners, and which now consists of local Superintendents and all Trustees of Grammar Schools, were reduced to three competent persons in each County, it would be a great saving of time and expense, and contribute much to the efficiency of such Boards. Perhaps the County Judge, the county superintendent, and a practical first-class Teacher, appointed by the County Council, or by a County Teachers' Association, would be, as economical and efficient a County Board of Examiners as could be devised.

4.—PERMANENT FIRST-CLASS CERTIFICATES.

It appears to me also worthy of consideration, whether the first-class teachers' certificates ought not to be more permanent than they are: that while a first-class certificate ought not to be given except upon the ground of efficiency of teaching, as well as of attainments; yet when once given, whether it ought not to be during life, unless revoked, as in case of the admission of a candidate to be a barrister-at-law, or a practitioner of medicine. This assumes, of course, that the standard of qualifications of teachers should be so raised as to prevent the licensing of any teacher who is not qualified to teach the prescribed programme of Common School education. The only exception should be, where a sufficient number of teachers thus qualified would not be licensed in a County. In such cases, the County Superintendent might be authorized to give temporary Certificates for particular schools; but only where there is not a sufficient number of duly qualified teachers licensed to teach all the schools of the county. The secret of the success and efficiency of the school systems of Holland, Switzerland and other European countries, as also in the cities and towns of the neighbouring States, is traced to their securing thoroughly qualified teachers, and the thorough oversight and inspection of the schools. And it is to the unfitness of teachers—the employment of inexperienced and unqualified boys and girls—that our American neighbours ascribe the deplorable inefficiency of many of their country schools. We should profit by the experience of both sides of the Atlantic. I am persuaded that if we protect the teachers' profession against the intrusion of unqualified persons, we shall seldom or never be without a sufficient number of duly qualified teachers in any County in Ontario. Besides, there are many teachers, and they will be found in increasing numbers, worthy of a Provincial or National Certificate of qualifications, available for life (during good behaviour) in every part of the Province.

5.—A FIXED MINIMUM FOR TEACHERS' SALARIES.

It is also submitted for consideration, and in immediate connection with the last suggestion, whether there should not be a fixed minimum of teachers' salaries in the townships, if not in the cities and towns. In the foregoing account of European systems of popular education, it is seen that in those countries of Europe in which the school teachers' profession and the public schools are most efficient,—such as Holland, Switzerland and other countries poorer than Ontario, there is a minimum of a teacher's salary fixed by law; and where any commune or school section is too poor to provide the prescribed minimum salary of the teacher according to a certain rate on assessed property, such commune is assisted to make up the deficiency by a special appropriation from the State Fund. In the absence of any legal provision of that kind, both in the United States and Ontario, there are many Trustees who seek the lowest priced teacher without regard to efficiency; and, in many instances meritorious and efficient teachers have been supplanted by low priced teachers, of the lowest class, to the injury of the school, and of many children and youth whose parents have

been taxed to pay a teacher quite incompetent to instruct their own children. This is a wrong to the public, a wrong to the children, and wrong to individuals taxed to pay such a teacher. A free school is not intended to gratify individual meanness and avarice, but to secure the education of all the children of a neighbourhood; and no school should be made free (that is, supported altogether by a rate on property) which is not competent to teach all the youth of the neighbourhood desirous of being taught all the prescribed subjects of a common school education. But both the competent teacher and the school rate payer should be protected against injustice and incompetence by having a minimum of salary legally prescribed, which would keep competent teachers from leaving the profession, and below which, meanness on the part of any trustees could not descend. Whether this minimum of teachers' salaries should be prescribed by a County Board, or by the County Council, or by the Legislative Assembly, is also a matter for consideration. In the neighbouring States, one of the most serious hindrances to the efficiency of their schools—and the evil is deeply felt in Canada—is the relinquishing of the profession by the best teachers on account of remuneration so much less than they can obtain in other employments. Every competent teacher thus driven from the profession, is a serious loss to the common school education of youth who should be protected by law against such loss inflicted by ignorance and meanness. Thus protected, the teachers profession has as much permanence in several countries in Europe, and also in many cities and towns in the States, and in Canada, as any other profession; and Holland, some of the cantons of Switzerland, and other small and poor countries noticed in the former part of this report, show that where the minimum of the teachers' salaries is high, the schools are more efficient and the people are proportionably better and more generally educated.

6.—ADDITIONAL PROTECTION TO TEACHERS.

The frequent change of teachers has long been complained of as one of the most serious impediments to the progress of the schools in many instances, as well as to the continuance of good teachers in the profession. The fixing of a minimum salary of teachers, as above proposed, is one means of abating the nuisance of low graded and low priced teachers, and of keeping good teachers in the profession; but another means of scarcely less importance is to prevent the needless and injurious changes of teachers. It will have been seen that in all the educating countries of the continent of Europe, a teacher, when once employed, cannot be dismissed without the concurrence of the Inspector, and in some instances not without the concurrence of higher authority. In England, Ireland and Scotland, teachers are as secure in their places during good behaviour and efficiency, as if they held office under government. In Ontario, Trustees and people themselves, as well as pupils and teachers, should have better protection than now exists, against changes and derangement of school teaching and operations at every whim or instigation of individual avarice, prejudice or passion.

7.—ADEQUATE ACCOMMODATIONS FOR THE SCHOOLS.

It is also suggested to make better provision for school house accommodation in many places. The law requires that the Trustees in each section shall admit to the school all resident applicants between 5 and 21 years of age; for whose instruction, in regard to both room and teaching, provision should of course be made. But complaints are made from many sections that the schools are utterly incapable of accommodating all the pupils, who are, in some instances, literally packed in a school-house like animals in a rail car, and that many of the school-houses are altogether unfit for use; yet the Trustees will do nothing to enlarge and improve them. Of course there can be no proper discipline or teaching under such circumstances. It will have been seen, in the previous pages of this report, that in France and other educating countries on the continent, each commune or section is *required* to provide school-house accommodation for all the resident children of school age, and is required to have a second or assistant teacher when the pupils exceed a certain number, varying from 50 to 75; also, that in the neighbouring State of New York the County Superintendent has authority to condemn a school-house as inadequate in size (allowing a certain number of square feet for each pupil) or unfit for use, and that the school kept in such house cannot share in the public school fund while such sentence of condemnation continues. Some such provision is required among us.

8.—A LIMIT TO THE ALTERATIONS OF SCHOOL SECTIONS.

I believe that in general the Township Councils have judiciously employed their very large powers in forming and altering school sections; but I am also persuaded that those powers have, in some instances, been so exercised as to inflict serious injury on many parties concerned, and to the reducing of school sections to injuriously small dimensions. This is naturally to be expected where a Township Council often consists of three or four persons, one or more of whom may be individually interested in the formation or alteration of certain school sections. It is provided in some of the adjoining States, that no school division shall contain less than 60 or 75 children of school age. I think that some further provision is required among us to prevent the formation of too small school sections, and to prevent the arbitrary transfer of individual rate payers from one section to another against their own wishes.

9.—POWER OF ESTABLISHING TOWNSHIP BOARDS OF TRUSTEES.

But the inconvenience and disadvantage of school section divisions would be remedied by having each township a school district, as in Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and Ohio, with a Township School Corporation, or Board of Trustees, to arrange and manage all the schools and school affairs of the Township. I explained and discussed this question at large in each county during my last official tour of Upper Canada, in 1865; I need not, therefore, dwell upon it here. A large majority of the County School Conventions concurred in my

recommendations on the subject. I do not propose to make it obligatory, or create township boards of trustees by legislative enactment; but I propose facilities to enable a majority of the ratepayers, or their representatives, in each township, to establish township school organization at their pleasure.

10.—HIGH SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS.

I would suggest that more specific and effectual provision be made than has yet been made, for the better education of *girls*. It is the mother more than the father that decides the intellectual and moral character, if not material interests of the household. A well educated woman seldom fails to leave upon her offspring the impress of her own intelligence and energy; while, on the other hand, an uneducated or badly educated mother often paralyzes, by her example; and spirit, all the efforts and influences exerted from all other sources, for the proper training and culture of her children. In the rural parts of the country, the education of girls, as well as of boys, must chiefly depend upon the common mixed schools; and on the improved efficiency of those schools depends the education of nine-tenths of our country's future population. But I think our cities and towns and larger villages are by no means fulfilling their educational obligations and mission as they should do, and as is done in the cities and towns of the neighbouring States, in which there are high schools for girls, as well as for boys, besides elementary mixed schools. With three or four exceptions, there are with us not even high central schools for both sexes; there is only the dead level of the common ward school; there is no high English School to teach the higher branches of English, including the elements of Natural History, Chemistry and Philosophy, and the proper subjects of a Commercial education; much less is there a high school for girls, embracing a curriculum of studies required for imparting a sound education for females. Our Grammar Schools do not supply this desideratum. From the beginning, in the State of Massachusetts, the duty to establish and support high schools, as well as common schools, has been exacted of every town of a given population. The fulfilment of a similar obligation should, I think, be required of each of our cities and towns, and a special apportionment should be made out of school or other public funds to encourage and aid in that special and important work.

11.—THE COMMON SCHOOLS ENTIRELY FREE.

I have also to suggest for consideration the important question of declaring the Common Schools free throughout Ontario. The course pursued among us on this subject is different from that which has been adopted in the neighbouring States. In the free school States the schools have been made free by an Act of the Legislature. With us the Legislature, by the School Act of 1850 invested each school division or section with power to decide annually for itself. The question has therefore been discussed and voted upon again and again, by the rate payers in every school section in Ontario. The result of this annual discussion and voting upon the question in primary meetings during sixteen years is, that the free schools have increased from 100 to 300 every year, until

in 1866, out of the 4,303 schools reported, 3,595 (or all but 708) were reported *free*; and of these 708 the rate bill has been 25 cents per month or less. As the rate-payers themselves have *made* more than four-fifths of the schools free, the question now is, whether the Legislature should not *declare* them all free, and thus put an end to a needless annual discussion of the question in each neighbourhood throughout the country. The subject has been pressed upon my attention in nearly every County of the Province. Many persons opposed to free schools have urged me to have the question settled by law, as they saw that the schools would be made free, but they themselves did not wish to vote in their own neighbourhoods differently from what they had done, and they did not wish to be compelled either to absent themselves from their annual school meetings, or discuss and vote for no purpose on the question of free schools. The advocates of free schools think it hard and injurious that the harmony of the school meetings should continue to be disturbed by the agitation of this question on which the majority of the rate-payers have so often expressed their opinions. The *question* of free schools—whether the property of all should be made liable for the education of all—has been thoroughly discussed, and it has been decided with unprecedented unanimity that each man should contribute to the education of all the youth of the land according to the property which he possesses and which is protected in the land, and made valuable by the joint labour, intelligence and enterprise of all the people. The *experiment* has also been tried in adjoining neighbourhoods, and in the same neighbourhood, time and again; and in every instance the attendance at the free school has been proportionably far larger than at the rate bill school. The question now is whether the Legislature should not give effect to the voice of the country, and declare all the schools free.

12.—COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

My last suggestion relates to the important subject of *Compulsory Education*—a question very simple in itself, but much mystified and complicated by misapprehension.

In the *first* place it is a question which does not relate to 19 out of 20 of the people educating their children, except to help and protect them against the one out of twenty who is, cruelly towards his children, and injuriously towards the community, counteracting what the other nineteen are doing. Thus law against burglary, theft, drunkenness, Sabbath-breaking, does not apply to honest, sober, moral men, except to protect them against what endangers the public welfare. The man who produces and cherishes a brood of ignorance in the midst of the community, is creating and multiplying the instruments of vice and lawlessness; he is, therefore, a producing, if not a conspiring, incendiary. Should not the community protect itself against such a creature? I argue not here the question of the connection between ignorance and idleness, and vice and lawlessness, that has been established times unnumbered by statistics and witnesses without end. The French Minister of Public Instruction, in his Report for 1865 (which I have quoted more than once in the preceding pages) gives, under the head of

the "Relations between Public Instruction and Morality," statistical tables, showing the effect of education in diminishing crime in the different countries of Europe. He concludes with the following forcible and beautiful remarks: "We cannot afford to leave uncultivated, during perhaps the half of life, the precious treasures of popular intelligence, when we see that the progress of morality follows that of public instruction and general prosperity. The gain made by the schools coincides with the loss sustained by the prisons."

In the *second* place, the question involves the protection of innocence and helplessness against wrong and cruelty. The law punishes a parent who wilfully starves, or mutilates, or murders his child. Is not wilfully starving and mutilating the mind, and murdering all that is moral and noble in humanity, worse than inflicting any injury on the body?

I remark *thirdly*, that if it is right to tax the property of all for the education of all, it must be equally right to see that all are educated; otherwise it is raising money under false pretences.

Be it observed, *fourthly*, that if it is the right of every child to receive such food and care as will nourish his body to maturity, he must have a higher right to such intellectual nourishment and care as will mature his higher powers of manhood. And if such be the inherent, divine right of the child, the State should protect the child in the enjoyment of that right, against any human or inhuman being, parent or guardian, who should, by neglect or otherwise, attempt to deprive the child of such right.

Finally, I beg to observe, that every system of public education is a system of compulsion. Even a public grant for educational purposes is taking from each citizen something, whether he likes it or not, for the education of others. By the imposition of a school tax for the erection of a school house, the payment of a teacher, or other expenses of a school, each ratepayer is compelled to pay, however unwilling, for those purposes. And if by such universal tax on the property of a city, town or neighbourhood, the means of instruction are provided for every resident child of school age, has not every taxpayer the right to insist that every child shall be educated? The parent or guardian may prefer a school at home, or private, or other school than the public school for the instruction of his children. Well and good, let him be the sole judge of that.* But

*The general law in Europe on this subject is summed up in the following statement of Mr. Kay, late travelling Bachelor of the University of Cambridge.

"The Germans and Swiss have always left to the parent, the greatest possible liberty of choice, as to the manner in which he will educate his children; they have only said, 'the happiness and social prosperity of every country require, that all its members should be capable of thinking, intelligent, and, above all, religious; he who does not educate his children is an offender against his country, inasmuch as he lessens the probability of its prosperity and happiness; therefore such a person must be punished, that other careless citizens may be deterred from following his example.' Indeed by such a train of simple reasoning as this, the Prussian government, as well as the governments of Germany, Denmark, Switzerland and Sweden oblige every parent to educate his children. He may send them to any school he pleases, in any part of the country; he may have a private tutor at home if he pleases; or the mother may perform the office of teacher. In all this government does not interfere. All that is demanded is, that as the State is immediately and essentially interested in the right development of the mind of each one of its citizens, the country should have satisfactory proof, that the children of every parent are being properly educated in one way or another." (Vol I. p. 44.)

he has no right to the choice as to whether his child shall, or shall not, be educated at all, any more than he has the right of choice as to whether his child shall steal or starve, as long as he is a member of a civil community, whose whole interests are binding upon each member.

Every system of public instruction being compulsory in its very nature, the compulsion to be educated should be co-extensive with the interests of the whole community. And that community which provides most effectually to free itself, and keep itself free from ignorance and its consequences, contains within itself the elements of the greatest freedom. The freest State of the American Republic—Massachusetts—and the wealthiest State, in proportion to its population, and the most advanced in Science, Literature and Manufactures—has, and has had from its commencement, the most compulsory system of education in America, and pays, and has from the beginning paid, the largest proportional sum for its support, and made all its public schools free, besides providing reformatory schools for the idle and vicious.

I think it needless to pursue the argument any further in this place. In my brief accounts of the systems of popular education in Europe—in the former part of this report, I have noted the *compulsory* feature of those systems, and shown how it is carried into effect; and in the part of my report under the head of "Compulsory Education," I have extracted from the report of the French Minister of Public instruction, (M. Duruy) and from the report of the French School Commissioner to Germany and Switzerland (M. Baudouin), a summary history of the law of compulsory education in different countries of Europe. In Holland, and three Cantons out of the twenty three Cantons of Switzerland, the only States of the continent in which compulsory education does not exist, except in France, where measures are being taken to introduce it—a system of compulsion and restriction prevails in other respects equivalent to compulsory education itself. Every locality is compelled to provide a school-house and school for all the children of school age, and the State aids the locality not able to do so without assistance; and no child can be apprenticed, or employed in a factory, &c., without being examined and giving satisfaction as to his or her education. This is a larger assumption of power on the part of the State, between parent and child, than in directly compelling the education of the child.

In all those European countries where the law for compulsory education exists, the simple penalty of fine and temporary imprisonment, has been found sufficient to give it effect, even without the aid of reformatory schools. I am persuaded the same penalty, with perhaps the addition of a milder penalty of imposing a special rate bill for absent school children, would secure the universal education of children a part of the year in all the townships; while some additional provision might be required in "An Act for the Instruction of Idle and Truant Children in Cities and Towns," with, perhaps, industrial schools. I have been assured by many individuals of wealth, and members of benevolent associations, that the operations of such a law would never be impeded for the want of clothing for poor children, or even food, if necessary.

During my last official tour of Upper Canada in 1865, a very large majority (thirty-seven) of the County School Conventions adopted resolutions in favour of compulsory provisions of law to secure to all children from 7 to 14 years of age, the benefits of school instruction 4 or 6 months each year.

In the former part of this report it will have been seen that in Switzerland, Baden, Wurtemberg, Prussia and other countries where the principle of compulsory education has long been in operation, the law is now merely nominal, it scarcely even requires to be invoked, as the national mind has become so thoroughly educated that no parent any more thinks of bringing up his children without education than without food or clothing. Such I am persuaded, under the operations of a similar law, will be the universal sentiment of Ontario in the course of a few years. Until then, the great mass of the community should be protected against the conduct of the vicious few who would sow the seeds, multiply and perpetuate the evils of ignorance, idleness and vice.

Some clauses of our school law in regard to elections in cities, towns, &c., may be amended, but require no notice in these general suggestions, which relate to matters that not only require legislation but which are of universal interest and application in the advancement of our whole school system. Nor have I adverted to defects in connection with our school operations which may be corrected by better modes of proceeding, and do not require legislation to remove. The object of this report is to aid in perfecting our educational system, that all parties labouring under it may be enabled to prosecute their work to greater advantage until there shall not be a child in the land ten years of age, and of a sound mind, who shall not be able to read and write well.

XXVII.—CONCLUDING REMARKS.

In the foregoing pages I have made no reference to the other Provinces of our Canadian Confederation. In the application of my epitomes of facts and systems, I have confined myself to Ontario, as no national system of education seems to have been contemplated by the Confederation Act, and as each Province is an independent State in itself in respect to education, without educational identity or unity with any other Province. In this respect we have imitated, rather than have been warned by, the example of other ancient and modern Confederations. An able American writer remarks: "So long as the education of our children is conducted under the laws of the separate States, without any homogeneousness in the methods adopted for their sustenance and management, we shall lack a most important auxiliary to a true Nationality. Each of the several States being left to adopt its own scheme, and to determine what shall be the method and measure of education imparted at public ex-

pense, to all classes of children within its bounds, it is quite impossible to secure that uniformity of method or thoroughness of administration, or strictness of responsibility which a well-managed national bureau might achieve. The whole work is fragmentary and unmethodical. Each State has a different standard, grade or measure of school culture. It must have its own method of preparing and employing teachers, of paying school expenses, supplying books and superintending the movements of the machinery, but even when the reports of any two States happen to embrace the same items, in form, they are made upon different bases, and no comparative deductions can be made from them. This will be obvious if we contrast any of our State reports with the reports of the Privy Council on Education in England, or of other European countries, in which we have a single connected view of the working of the whole machinery, and all the connections and results, as if it were the report of a parish or district school."

That distinguished American statesman—the Hon. Horace Binney—remarks thus on the same subject, in a published private letter to a friend:

"The want has been incident to all Confederated States in all ages of the world. No mere league or treaty of alliance or federal compact has been able to give the whole people concerned a common country. Our Union has been more intimate than that of any other States, and yet I fear I must say, it has as completely failed in this respect, as it has in other countries in ancient or in comparatively modern times. We are born in the States—the State laws, bearing upon our most intimate personal relations are over us, and State officers are the agents for their enforcement. It requires a higher view and more extended observation than the young take, or than the course of education takes, to see and feel the bearings of the *union* upon *ourselves* personally. I should almost despair of ever finding an effectual corrective if our domestic institutions were to remain permanently in the same condition, in all respects, as they have been. Thus far, beyond doubt, the differences in certain State institutions have caused the greater part of our troubles, and finally brought about the greatest. Certainly one of the right ways is to accustom children and young people from early life, to have the whole country and nation before them, and to keep its symbol in their hearts by every means which can associate it with our virtue, our honour, and our domestic and public safety."

In the absence of any ground or pretext on which I could base a national view of education for the Dominion of Canada, I have confined my applications and anticipations to my own province. I have presented the systems and progress of popular education in several inland States of Europe, whose population separately is almost identical with that of Ontario—States—such as Baden, Wurtemberg, &c., maintaining after having achieved their independence, and enjoying much greater liberty and prosperity than some of the largest European Kingdoms. I refer to these facts to remind my fellow-countrymen of Ontario that whatever may be our future relations, whether those of united Nationality

with the rest of British North America, or those of isolated independence, we have no reason for apprehension or discouragement, having within ourselves, under the Divine blessing, all the essential elements and resources of nationality, freedom, progress and happiness.

I have the honor to be,

Your Excellency's most obedient and humble servant,

E. RYERSON.

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,

Toronto, March 4th, 1868.

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